FULBRIGHT SCHOLAR PROGRAM

Living in the United States

A Handbook for Visiting Fulbright Scholars

FULBRIGHT

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Cover photograph: (left to right) Fulbright Visiting Scholars Dave Smith (Australia), Anne Moen (Norway), Marwan Homedan (Syria), Ruta Skendeliene (Lithuania), Serigne Gueye (Senegal). Photo by John Consoli ©2002.

LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES

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AUGUST 2002

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INTRODUCTION

The Fulbright grant offers you the opportunity not only to do advanced research or lecturing in your field but also develop new linkages with American colleagues and expand your understanding of the United States. At the same time, you will expose Americans to foreign perspectives and approaches. Through the exchange of ideas with your U.S. hosts and community, you will help further "increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries," which is the ultimate goal of the Fulbright Scholar Program.

Purpose of this Handbook. Before building new relationships, you first need to get settled into the United States and learn your way around the new physical, social and academic environment. This handbook has been prepared to ease your adjustment. Since the United States is a large and diverse country, you can expect many variations between regions, cities and rural areas. While no one book can answer all of your questions, this handbook will provide a general orientation to living in the United States.

Through the exchange of ideas with your U.S. hosts and community, you will help further "increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries."

In section one, you will find a brief introduction to U.S. core values and characteristics. Sections two and three explain practical matters from locating housing, setting up a bank account and understanding finances to familiarizing you with the national holidays and variations in climate. Sections four and five shift the focus to the academic system, which is where most visiting scholars will be working throughout their grants, explaining the structure of the U.S. higher education system and what to expect if you are teaching in a U.S. university. Finally, section six provides an introduction to the U.S. library system to assist you in your research.

Culture Matters. Whether you are leaving the country for the first time or are a veteran traveler, international visitors often experience frustration when they move to a new country—Fulbright scholars coming to the United States are no exception. The stress of living in another country can be subtle but intense, requiring that you learn to navigate new surroundings and adjust to different modes of communication. Culture shock, the anxiety produced when a person moves to a new environment and culture, is a natural response to this stress. It can leave you with the anxiety of not knowing what to do, how to do things or how things work in your new setting. You can also feel unsure of what is appropriate or inappropriate in social situations.

The first step in overcoming culture shock is anticipating this stress before it happens. You can also reduce the burden of culture shock by educating yourself about your new environment so you can successfully adapt to the situation. We hope the information offered here will help you feel at home quickly so you can focus on the activities of your grant.

Chapter 1: Characteristics of Americans

It is not easy to make generalizations about the United States—for above all, it is a land of diversity. The size of the country, its geographic and climatic differences and the ethnic mix of its people all contribute to its variety. Still, there are a few characteristics you will encounter in "typical" Americans from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

For example, Americans tend to value their individuality, think of themselves as equal to any other man or woman, and believe they are masters of their own destinies. They feel free to speak their minds on most subjects and are often astonishingly frank in expressing political opinions—cherishing above all other rights the freedom of speech guaranteed by the U.S. Constitution. They are direct in communication—asking questions when information is needed and saying "no" when they mean no. They are materialistic on the whole but generous as well. Americans do not commonly exhibit class-consciousness or make distinctions amongst themselves along class lines. If anything, the vast majority identify themselves as belonging to the middle class. Except for perhaps the very rich or very poor, Americans do not usually feel that the social class into which they were born will determine their success in life. Further, people do not usually show excessive deference or superiority to each other in public situations. This may be different, however, within a professional setting.

Introductions and Relationships. Americans appear open and friendly at first meeting, but this only means that they are pleased to make your acquaintance; it may or may not lead to true friendship. They are informal and often introduce themselves by their first names and call others by their first names on very slight acquaintance. In professional situations, however, it is preferable to address people using their titles and last names (for example, Dr. Smith, Ms. Jones) until they ask you to use their first names. Also, in professional situations, Americans tend to stand at least an arm's length apart when conversing and are not inclined to touch one another, except to shake hands upon greeting one another. Americans generally make a clear distinction between their professional and personal relationships. In professional relationships, Americans tend to start conducting business without necessarily establishing a strong personal rapport. Though seemingly impersonal and unfriendly at first, this practice merely illustrates American values of efficiency, practicality and time. Americans do not always feel it necessary to establish a strong personal rapport when conducting business. Above all, the most ideal standards in American professional relationships are fairness, impartiality and objectivity.

U.S. Diversity and Perceptions of Foreign Visitors. The United States is known for being a land of immigrants. Visitors are sometimes surprised at the nation's ethnic, linguistic, racial and religious diversity. Especially in the largest cities, dozens of ethnic groups have established communities and institutions. In some instances, you may meet many people who come from your native country, speak your language or share your religious beliefs. While experiencing American culture, you are encouraged to get involved with this community.

The U.S. Constitution specifically forbids discrimination against anyone on the basis of color, race or religion. This is one ideal commonly held by most Americans, and they generally welcome cultural diversity within their own communities. However, there are some Americans, unfortunately, who do not value these ideals. These individuals may even continue to hold on to negative stereotypes. You may receive stares, be received with hesitation or asked questions that seem odd or offensive, particularly in areas of the country where people are not accustomed to foreign visitors. In these cases, you are encouraged to educate those you encounter about your area of the world. They will have a lot to learn from you. You should not, on the other hand, put yourself in a position of harm or danger because of someone's bigotry and ignorance. If you feel threatened or uncomfortable you should notify your faculty associate or local law enforcement (in extreme cases).

...ask questions whenever you need guidance or information...Americans consider it your responsibility to raise an issue as a concern so it can be addressed.

By and large, differences are indulged, and "doing your own thing" is held in high regard. Thus, there is no need for you to change your own habits or lifestyle. Nonetheless, there are a few customs you may find convenient to adopt while you are here.

Appointments and Punctuality. When Americans make an appointment or accept an invitation, they can generally be counted on to appear at the appointed time. They view punctuality as a virtue, especially in a professional environment. It is always appropriate to make an appointment before visiting someone, particularly at an office, and best to be on time for those appointments. Americans value their privacy and rarely call on even good friends without telephoning first. When appointments are professional in nature—with a doctor or a colleague at the university—you should appear five minutes prior to the time you agreed upon. On social occasions, especially when the invitation is for a meal, plan to arrive no more than 10 to 15 minutes after the appointed hour (but never before the hour—the hosts may not be ready yet). In both cases, be sure to telephone if you are unavoidably delayed. Public events such as concerts, weddings and university classes begin promptly at the scheduled time.

Invitations. If you accept an invitation or make an appointment, it is very important that you appear as promised since your hosts will have taken considerable trouble to prepare for your visit, and professionals will have arranged their schedules to accommodate you. It is perfectly acceptable to decline an invitation if it is not convenient for you, but some response is always necessary. On a formal, written invitation, RSVP means "please reply." It is not necessary to bring a gift unless the occasion is a birthday or Christmas party. If the invitation is for an entire weekend, a simple, inexpensive gift of flowers, candy or wine or a small souvenir from your own country would be appropriate. A thank you note to your host or hostess, especially following an overnight visit, is considerate and always appreciated.

If you are invited to go out for a meal, you should assume that all parties will pay for themselves, unless the invitation includes a specific offer to pay for your food.

Dietary Restrictions. If health or religious beliefs restrict the foods that you can eat, you should feel free to explain this when you accept an invitation to visit. Such preferences are always understood. Your host or hostess will usually be happy to take them into account when the menu is planned. You can also be assertive about dietary preferences or restrictions in a restaurant. Many places will try to accommodate your request.

Smoking Restrictions. It is now quite common in the United States for cigarette smoking to be either restricted or completely prohibited in public places. This includes restaurants, airplanes and other modes of public transportation, theaters, stores, museums and many office and university buildings. Cigar and pipe smoking are almost always prohibited. You should also be aware that Americans sometimes object to guests smoking in their homes, and it is considered a courtesy to ask for permission from your host before you begin to smoke.

Asking Questions. Probably the best advice this handbook can give is to suggest you **ask questions whenever you need guidance or information**. In fact, if you feel that something is not going as you anticipated, Americans consider it **your** responsibility to raise an issue as a concern so it can be addressed. Americans ask questions freely and never think inquiries are a sign of ignorance or weakness. On the contrary, questions indicate interest, and you will find most people glad to help.

CHAPTER 2: PRACTICAL MATTERS

HOUSING

Temporary Housing on Arrival. Unless you are familiar with the surrounding area of your host institution, you may need assistance to arrange temporary housing for yourself and your family for the first few days of your stay in the United States. Some universities offer short-term accommodations; otherwise, a hotel or motel nearby may be the best alternative. You may also wish to correspond with your faculty associate for assistance in making these initial arrangements. When corresponding, be sure to specify exact arrival times, the number of family members coming with you, and any special requirements. You can also ask if special rates are available for faculty. These accommodations may be somewhat expensive, but if you make the location of permanent housing your first priority, you should not need them for an extended period of time. *Please keep in mind that faculty associates are encouraged to help scholars upon arrival, but they are not obliged to do so.*

Locating Permanent Housing. Your host institution may suggest that you arrive a week or two before the beginning of the academic term to allow time to find suitable housing. Housing is often in short supply and may be expensive in university communities. Housing is especially difficult to locate—and expensive—in such cities as Boston, New York, Washington, D.C., Chicago, Los Angeles and San Francisco as well as the state of Hawaii. Most universities, however, have offices to assist students and faculty in this regard. They may be able to help you compile a list of available apartments or houses and offer guidance about neighborhoods and costs. You should also check the classified advertisement section of the local newspaper. The weekend papers have the most complete listing of available apartments for rent, both furnished and unfurnished. Many newspaper classified listings are also available online. If you have arranged your own affiliation, you will want to correspond with your U.S. colleagues well in advance of your arrival to obtain information on the housing situation in the host city and the name of the housing office at the university, if available.

Once you have identified potential housing, you will need to make an appointment to visit the premises. Usually, lists of available housing prepared by housing offices or advertisements in the newspapers include the phone number of the individual or agency renting the apartment, as well as information about when the party can be reached to schedule appointments. Sometimes landlords or agencies will schedule appointments for after-work hours. Because the weekend newspapers usually have the most complete listing of available rental units, many landlords, especially private individuals, schedule visits to the rental units on Saturdays and Sundays. In general, you should respond to advertisements as soon as they appear—apartments often rent quickly.

You will probably be asked to sign a lease (rental agreement) for a stipulated period of time. Read the lease carefully; it is a legally binding contract. It will list your obligations and those of your landlord in detail. Generally, it will be your responsibility to maintain the apartment in the condition in which it is turned over to

you, but the landlord is responsible for repairs to the building and equipment that are not the result of tenant negligence. If possible, ask a friend or colleague familiar with the area to accompany you when you look for an apartment or house and review your rental agreement.

Costs. Housing costs vary widely in the United States, depending on the region of the country and whether you are in a rural, suburban or urban area (see the Budgeting section in this chapter). Normally, the monthly cost of a unit rented for less than a year is higher than the monthly cost for a 12-month rental. Furnished accommodations are also more expensive than unfurnished units. Your university housing office or faculty associate may be able to offer guidance in advance as to probable costs for accommodations to meet your needs and thus facilitate budgeting of your stipend. *Each grantee, however, is ultimately responsible for finding housing themselves.*

The terms and conditions governing the rental arrangements will be found in the lease. Landlords expect payment of each month's rent at the beginning of the month. The lease will stipulate the exact date payment is due and the amount of security deposit required by the landlord. The security deposit is usually equal to one month's rent. It protects the landlord in the event that a tenant fails to pay rent at some point or damages the apartment. The security deposit, and frequently the first month's rent, is required at the time the lease is signed. Occasionally, the landlord will also ask for the last month's rent in advance. The deposit should be returned after the tenant vacates the premises if all conditions of the lease have been met. You should read the lease carefully to determine the size of the security deposit as well as potential penalties for breaking the lease. You should also check to see if the rent covers utilities, that is, the cost of heating, cooling, water and electricity. If these are not included, the living unit is metered, and you will receive a bill for the amount used each month. Utility costs in a single-family home are almost always the tenant's responsibility. You should be sure to reach a clear understanding of the bills you will be expected to pay in addition to rent and ask for an estimate of the costs incurred by previous tenants. This information will help you to determine whether the housing is affordable for you or not. The cost of a telephone is almost always billed separately, regardless of whether the rental unit is an apartment, room or house.

If the apartment is separately metered, you must telephone the companies that provide the services (oil, gas, electricity, water—the landlord will identify them) and ask that accounts be established in your name.

Presumably, you will seek "furnished" accommodations. Sometimes these will have all the furniture, equipment and supplies you will need. At other times, you will have to provide linens for the bed, bath and table and utensils for eating and cooking. These items can be purchased at a relatively modest cost. If you do lease a vacant apartment, you can find inexpensive furnishings at "garage" sales (where neighbors sell household items they no longer need out of their

garage), shops run by the Salvation Army or Goodwill Industries or you can rent furniture by the month. Normally, even "unfurnished" apartments contain such appliances as refrigerators and stoves.

Food. Because the United States is a nation of immigrants, foods from all parts of the world can be found throughout the country, especially in major metropolitan areas. Ethnic restaurants are found in cities and towns, and supermarkets and specialty shops often stock ingredients to create the favorite dish of most nations and cultures. If you ask neighbors and colleagues, or study the yellow pages of the telephone directory (see Communications in this section for more information on the telephone directory), you should be able to find almost anything you want.

Typically, Americans eat breakfast on workdays (Monday through Friday) between 7 a.m. and 8 a.m. (fruit or juice, cereal or eggs, toast and coffee or tea) and have a light lunch of a salad, soup and/or sandwich between noon and 2 p.m. The main meal of the day (dinner, or, in some parts of the country, supper) is taken between 6 p.m. and 8 p.m. when family members can eat together.

Shopping is ordinarily done once or twice a week in supermarkets, which are enormous stores that carry inventories of foods of all kinds, pharmacy items and housewares, displayed on open shelves for self-service. These are usually open from early morning to late in the evening (in some cases, 24-hours per day), Monday through Saturday, and throughout the day on Sunday. Residential neighborhoods commonly have smaller convenience stores as well, but these tend to offer a limited selection at higher prices. These stores are handy places to purchase essential items such as bread and milk or other items needed between major shopping trips. Alcoholic beverages, depending on regulations of the individual state, are sometimes sold in supermarkets, convenience stores, separate liquor stores or special state-operated shops.

You may be surprised at the abundance of processed "convenience" foods sold in U.S. markets. These can be frozen, canned or packaged in a form that requires minimal preparation time. They are often less nutritious and more expensive than fresh foods, but occasionally they are cheaper. For example, fruits and vegetables are frozen at the height of the harvest season when they are plentiful, then sold for a standard price all year long when the fresh produce is either unavailable or very costly.

You can eat out inexpensively in "fast food" chain restaurants (McDonald's, Pizza Hut, KFC) that typically feature hamburgers, pizza, fried chicken and a self-service salad bar. Salad bars can also be found in larger grocery stores. The hamburger, a minced beef patty on a round roll, probably comes closest to being the U.S. national dish. It can be found everywhere, usually accompanied by french fried potatoes (fries). If you are vegetarian, the salads and pizza (with plain cheese) are good choices, as are the many vegetarian dishes in Mexican, Chinese or Indian restaurants. If you feel uncomfortable ordering food at first, seek out a cafeteria where the food is displayed in front of you, and you can help yourself to the dishes you want.

Family Concerns

Your Spouse. A number of social, cultural and educational activities are available in all university towns in the United States. These include:

- English as a second language classes, either provided by the university or in nearby community colleges or adult education programs;
- Academic courses offered by the same institutions, which may either be audited or taken for credit;
- Recreational courses (for example, arts, cooking, auto mechanics, sewing, crafts, dancing and fitness) offered by local schools and community organizations;
- Opportunities for volunteer work at local libraries, hospitals, day care centers, or social agencies, in which many Americans participate; and
- Social or special interest groups (for example, gardening, bridge, hiking, sports teams or bird watching clubs).

Local newspapers and public libraries are good sources of information on all these activities, but you can also consult your colleagues at the university and their spouses.

Your Children. Day care centers and nursery schools, most of which charge a fee, are available for children of preschool age. Costs in large cities are quite high. Day care provides care for children of working parents, usually for the entire work day; nursery schools provide supervised play and some educational experiences for part of a weekday. Of course, it is also possible to engage babysitters to care for very young children in your home. Neighbors and faculty colleagues are the best sources of information in locating an appropriate person. Regulations in some locales require day care providers, including babysitters, be licensed by the city, state or county.

At age five, many children attend kindergarten within the free public school system, where they continue their education through grade 12; some school systems also offer prekindergarten (pre-K) for four-year-olds. Education in the United States is compulsory for all children from age six to either 16 or 18, depending on the state of residence. Although most parents choose to enroll their offspring in public schools, private and parochial (religious) schools, both day and boarding, are also available at all levels. Private schools, however, charge tuition and can be costly.

Children are assigned to specific public schools by the local board of education based on where they reside, and Americans often choose their housing based on the educational reputation of the local schools. After you have arrived in the United States and have completed your housing arrangements, you should contact the local school board to inquire about enrollment procedures and special services your children require, such as English language training, facilities for the disabled and curricular modifications to keep them abreast of their schoolwork at home. You will need proof of your children's age (a copy of a birth certificate or other

official document) if they are entering school for the first time, transcripts of earlier schooling and up-to-date medical and dental records (to avoid having to repeat expensive tests and/or vaccinations and inoculations) for whatever schooling you choose.

If your children have participated in international organizations, such as Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts, YMCA or YWCA, they may wish to continue those activities while in the United States. There are local chapters of these and other youth organizations in most towns and cities throughout the country. In addition, neighborhood community centers regularly offer programs geared toward children and teenagers.

Clothing. The climate of the region where you will live will naturally determine the clothing you need. (Please see the Climate section in Chapter 3 for a breakdown of average regional temperatures.) If appropriate winter clothing is not available in your own country, the local department store in your host community will offer a wide range of styles at varying prices for all family members. Secondhand stores and thrift shops offer inexpensive common household items and used clothing. They are listed in the yellow pages of the telephone directory (see the Communication section in this chapter for more information on yellow pages) under "Thrift Shops," "Secondhand Clothing," or "Clothing, Used." Discount stores such as K-Mart, Wal-Mart, and Toys 'R'Us are additional sources for less expensive clothing, household items and toys.

Depending on the local climate, buildings in the United States are centrally heated in winter and air conditioned in summer. Nonetheless, Americans tend to wear cotton and cotton blends from May or June to September or October and lightweight wool or synthetic blends the rest of the year.

Campus dress is informal. Men wear slacks, shirts, sweaters or sport jackets (with or without a necktie). For women, skirts and blouses or simple dresses are the rule, though slacks are also acceptable. Suits for men and dresses for women are useful for more formal occasions. Your country's national dress is always welcome and appropriate.

Children also wear casual clothes and rarely dress up, even for parties. Both boys and girls prefer to wear blue jeans daily through the college years, although they will conform to more formal clothing for religious services and special occasions. Only a few private or religious schools require students to wear uniforms, but many public school systems now have dress codes that limit the type of clothing that students may wear.

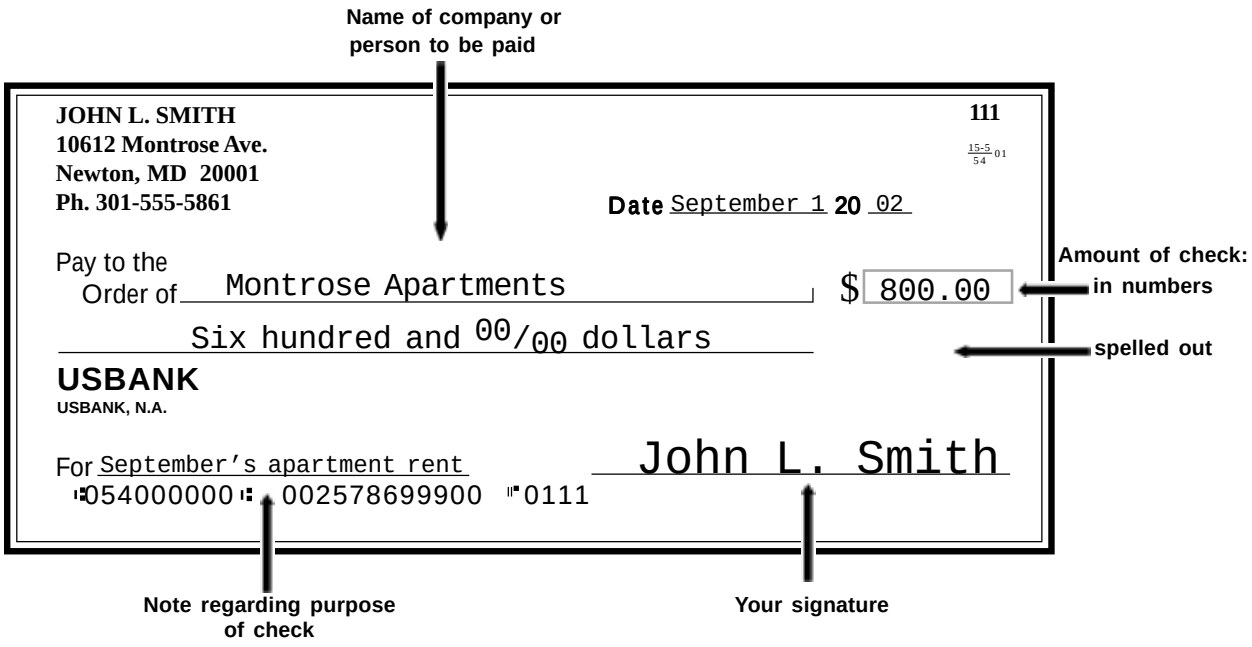
FINANCES

Currency. U.S. money and currency follow the decimal system, with the dollar ($1 equals 100 cents) as the basic unit. Currency includes paper money or bills in denominations of $1, $5, $10, $20, $50 and higher. All bills are the same size and color but have the value clearly marked in each corner. Coins are minted in denominations of 1¢ ($0.01 or a penny), 5¢ ($0.05 or a

nickel), 10¢ ($0.10 or a dime), 25¢ ($0.25 or a quarter), 50¢ ($0.50 or a half dollar) and $1.00 ($1.00 or dollar coins, not widely used). Coins (also called change) are used for vending machines, which sell cigarettes, soft drinks, coffee; public telephones; parking meters; and washing machines and dryers in laundromats. City buses often require passengers to have correct change.

Americans generally do not carry large amounts of cash with them, and it is neither safe nor necessary to do so. Traveler's checks are a useful alternative when you are away from your base city. A number of companies, including American Express, Bank of America and Citibank, sell traveler's checks in denominations of $10, $20, $50 and $100. They are available for purchase in most banks for a fee of up to two percent of their total value and are readily accepted in hotels, restaurants and shops all over the country. When you are close to your U.S. home, you can easily pay by personal check drawn on your U.S. checking account. However, shops will ask you for some form of photo identification when paying by check (for example, your passport or driver's license). An identification card (ID) can be obtained at state motor vehicle departments.

Banking. If your government does not restrict the exchange of currency, you may wish to transfer some personal funds to the United States. There are no restrictions on the importation of U.S. or foreign currency. This can be done by instructing your bank to issue a foreign draft, near your U.S. university, that your bank has a correspondent relationship. Upon arrival, you can then open an account at that bank and draw on the funds or arrange for the funds to be transferred to a more conveniently located banking institution.



You are strongly advised to bring some personal funds with you in the form of traveler's checks to cover expenses during transit and immediately after your arrival. When you arrive at the airport in the United States, it is useful to exchange some money (traveler's checks or foreign currency) into U.S. dollars to pay for transport to the city, tips for baggage handling at the airport and hotel and other essentials.

In any event, as soon as you arrive at your university, you should open an account at a local bank. If you have transferred funds from your home bank, you will probably choose its correspondent bank in the United States if it is conveniently located. If not, ask your faculty associate to suggest an appropriate institution.

Although the bank you select will offer you many different kinds of accounts, they will generally fall into two categories:

(a) Savings accounts pay interest at a modest rate but limit the number of withdrawals per month and require your presence at the bank to handle transactions.
(b) Checking accounts help depositors pay their bills by writing checks that can be sent safely through the mail (to pay rent or utility bills) or handed to cashiers in local stores.

Some checking accounts are offered without a fee but require that you maintain a minimum balance; others require no balance but debit the account a monthly service charge, as well as a small fee for each check cashed. The bank staff will list the options for you. Most banks also issue an ATM (automated teller machine) or debit card that allows bank customers to access funds in their accounts through machines that are open 24 hours a day by using a personal identification number (PIN). These machines are located outside the bank. Increasingly, grocery stores and gas stations have also installed machines that allow you to pay for your purchases at the checkout counter or gas pump using your ATM or credit card. Remember to take your receipt with you and never give your PIN to others, as they could use it to access your funds.

It is important to note that checks drawn on out-of-town banks, including those sent to you from Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES), can take up to five business days to clear (that is the time required for the money to be transferred from one bank to the other before it will be available to you). If you transfer your base from one city to another during the period of your grant, you can move your funds to a new bank in one of two ways: (a) you can write a check drawn on your original bank for deposit in the new account (which then must clear), or (b) you can purchase traveler's checks with the balance of your funds.

Credit. Predictions are that America will some day be a cashless society. This means payment for goods and services will be made either by credit card or by an electronic transfer of funds triggered by telephoned instructions. Even now, credit or charge cards are widely used. The most popular cards are those issued

BRIEF SUMMARY OF FINANCES IN THE UNITED STATES

Cash	Dollar bills and coins.
Traveler's Checks	These are the safest form of currency when traveling because, in contrast to cash or other kinds of checks, you can be reimbursed immediately for their loss or theft. When you purchase traveler's checks, you will receive a chart on which to record the serial number printed on each check. In the event of loss or theft, the issuing companies will replace any lost check—provided you have the serial number.
Cashier's Check	This is a guaranteed check purchased from a bank for the amount of the check plus a small charge. Your bank should honor and allow you immediate access to the amount of the check.
Bank Accounts	A checking account will be most useful to grantees. You can deposit cash or checks to open the account. If you are depositing a cashier's check, traveler's check or cash, you should have immediate access to the funds. Other forms of deposit may require a waiting period of no more than five business days before the funds become available. Savings accounts can be opened the same way.
Personal Checks	When you open a checking account, the bank will issue you temporary checks. As soon as possible, you should order personal checks with your name, address and bank account number printed on them. (There is usually a fee for ordering checks.) Checks can be used to pay bills, rent and other purchases and to withdraw cash from your account. Be sure to have some form of identification with you when writing a check for a purchase. Use of checks may be limited to the area in which you live—your checks may not be accepted when you travel to other cities.
Debit Card (ATM)	If you obtain a debit card when you open a bank account, you can get money from your account at any time by using the automated teller machines (ATMs) that your bank has placed around the town or city. Sometimes there are fees associated with these transactions. Be sure to record the transaction in your checkbook register.

by American Express, Visa, MasterCard and Discover. There are also many others available from credit companies with a local focus and from individual shops and department stores. Ordinarily, cards are issued only to applicants with a substantial income and proof of past credit worthiness. The safest place to apply for a credit card is at your bank. Given the complexity of credit checking outside the United States, it is difficult for visiting scholars to qualify for cards once they are in the United States. However, if you can obtain one before you leave home, you will find it useful, especially at hotels or if you were to rent a car.

Credit companies bill monthly and charge interest at very high rates (12–21 percent annual rate) on any unpaid balance from the previous month. Some companies, such as American Express, require payment in full at the end of the month. Although no interest is charged

WHEN BUDGETING YOUR STIPEND, KEEP THESE ESTIMATES IN MIND ($US):

Rent for one-bedroom apartment (living room, dining area, kitchen and bath):	
–Major city:	$800-$1,700/month
–Smaller cities/rural areas:	$500-$900/month
Utilities (electricity, water, heating oil/gas):	
–Dependant on size of unit and climate	$50-$200/month
Telephone (local calls only):	$35-$50/month
Motel/hotel room:	
–Major city:	$100-$200/day
–Smaller cities/rural areas:	$40-$80/day
Bus or subway fare:	$1-$3/way
Cup of coffee:	$1-$3
Lunch (on campus):	$5-$7
Dinner:	
–Coffee shop, deli, cafe:	$5-$10
–Family restaurant, bar and grill:	$8-$20
–Elegant restaurant (bistro):	$20 or higher
Loaf of bread:	$1-$3
Dozen eggs:	$1.25
Quart of milk:	$1

on the current month's bills, there are sometimes hidden costs for the convenience of credit.

Budgeting. The cost of living is highly variable in the United States. Speaking in very general terms, goods and services are more expensive in the Northeast and on the West Coast, where salaries are generally higher, than in the South or Midwest. The cost of living is lower in small cities and towns than in large urban areas.

Sales Tax. You should also be aware that state and local sales taxes—ranging up to nine percent of the price, depending on the area—are added to the marked price of many items at the time of purchase. Thus, a $10 item with a nine percent sales tax will actually cost $10.90.

Tipping for service. There are a number of circumstances in the United States when tipping is expected and, in fact, where tips make up a substantial portion of the wage of the person involved. Although tipping should be based on the quality of the service rendered, most people tip as follows:

- Porters at airports and train or bus stations, $1 per piece of luggage
- Bellboys who show you to your room and carry your baggage in hotels, a minimum of $1
- Waiters or waitresses in restaurants, 15-20 percent of the bill (for large groups, a service charge may already be included in the bill)
- Taxi drivers, 15 percent of the fare
- Barbers or hairdressers, 10–20 percent of bill

Unless they perform some unusual service for you, you need not tip hotel clerks, doormen or chambermaids, nor is it customary to tip gas station attendants, theater ushers, bus drivers or airline personnel. If you do not wish the services of a porter or bellboy, you can simply indicate your preference to handle your baggage yourself. Under no circumstances should you offer a tip to public officials, including police officers; this may be looked upon as an attempt to bribe the official and could have serious consequences.

Consumer Fraud. Consumer fraud is when businesses or merchants intentionally deceive, misrepresent or twist the truth in order to persuade someone to part with something of value. This is also called a "scam." Scams are aimed at getting people's money by selling them defective goods or services or by taking their money and not providing a promised service or product. People running scams can try to reach you through the mail, over the phone or in person at your front door. Consumer fraud is an unfortunate but real aspect of life in the United States. Most people are honest and are not going to steal from you, but there are some who might try. Here are a few useful words of caution:

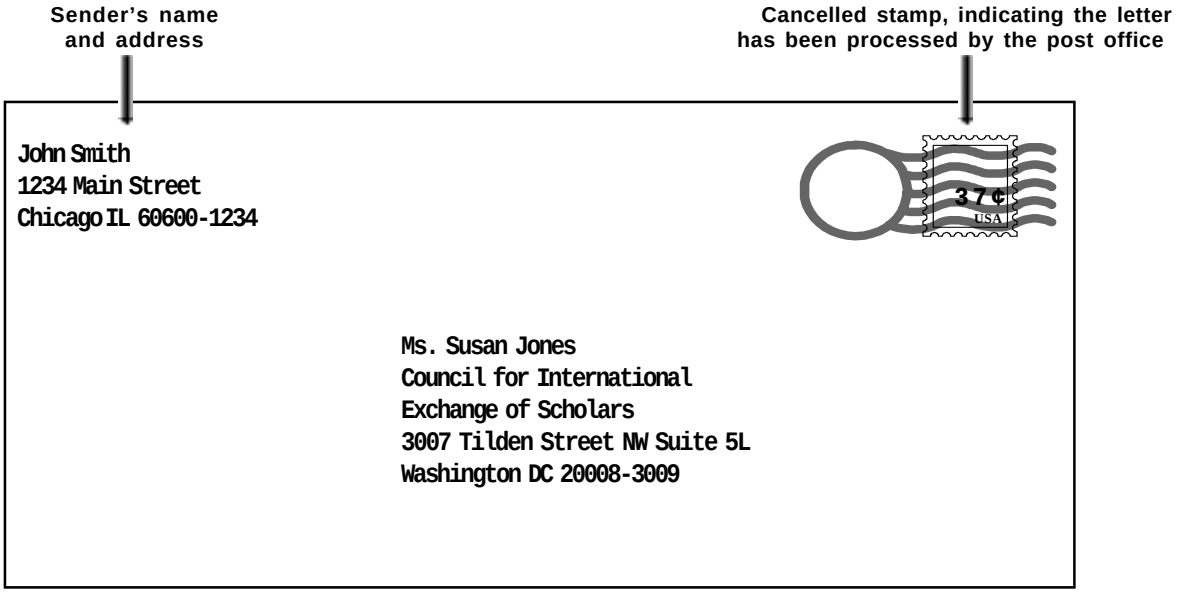
- Do not give your savings, checking or credit card account numbers to anyone you do not know—especially over the telephone!
- Do not sign any contract until you have a few days to read it. If you have any questions, do not be afraid to ask them until you are completely satisfied and fully understand all the terms. High-pressure "limited-time offers" are

usually intended to get your money before you have time to think and are scams.

- Get all promises from salespeople in writing, including any guarantees and a receipt for the product or services you are buying. Make sure you have the full name of the company, its address and telephone number in writing.
- You do not need to listen to a salesperson over the phone if you are not interested. You do not need to be polite, especially if the person is pressuring you to make an immediate decision. You can say, "I am not interested and do not call me again," and hang up the phone.
- You do not need to let anyone in your home. Always ask for proper identification from strangers who may claim to be repairmen; pest exterminators; or workers from the telephone, gas, water or electric company. They should all have identification cards or badges. If you have any doubts, ask them to wait outside while you call the company to verify.
- Beware of extravagant claims and promises of miracles. It is best to follow the common wisdom, "If it sounds too good to be true, it probably is."

COMMUNICATIONS

Mail. The U.S. Postal Service, a government-owned corporation, provides mail service from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m., Monday through Friday, and until noon on Saturday, although some have extended hours. You can also place mail in blue mailboxes, located on many street corners and in public buildings; each carries a sign that indicates collection times. In most areas of the country, mail is delivered to individual residences, Monday through Saturday.



As of June 2002, postage for first-class mail within the United States is $0.37 per ounce. Postage to Canada and Mexico is $0.60. Airmail postage to an overseas address is currently $0.80 per half ounce. Airmail postage is not required within the United States. Aerograms and postcards are inexpensive ways of corresponding overseas. The postal rate for sending an aerogram or postcard outside the United States is $0.70. Aerograms are single-page letters that can be folded into the shape of an envelope and airmailed internationally. Do not enclose anything (for example, photographs or checks) inside an aerogram. You may purchase an aerogram at any U.S. post office. Postcards may also be purchased at the post office or at souvenir shops and convenience stores. Since postage rates are subject to increase, you should check for current rates at your local post office or visit the U.S. Postal Service Web site at http://www.usps.gov to confirm the rates and regulations.

The name of the country, in this case "USA," needs to be added as a final line to the address if the letter is to cross an international boundary. Use of the ZIP code that follows the city and state names is required for delivery. The first five digits are in common use; the final four are part of a system designed to direct mail to specific addresses more quickly, but they are not required.

As is customary in other countries, U.S. post offices offer a variety of services, including parcel post and insurance, registered and certified mail, and money orders.

Telephones. The telephone system in the United States is composed of many privately owned but cooperating companies. The system is effective, and a good deal of business is conducted over the telephone. One can reserve hotel rooms, make travel reservations, buy theater tickets and shop for any item without leaving home. Almost all Americans have telephones in their homes, sometimes with several extensions.

Telephone numbers in the U.S. contain 10 digits: a three-digit area code, a three-digit number for the local exchange, and a four-digit number for the individual subscriber. Under the system, the United States is divided into many small regions or areas, each reached by an area code that must be dialed whenever you are calling outside your local area. When you call a local number, only the exchange and individual subscriber number must be dialed. For example, when calling CIES from within Washington, D.C., dial:

686-4000

In some large metropolitan areas that span more than one area code, it may be necessary to dial the area code. For instance when calling CIES from a Virginia or Maryland suburb of Washington, D.C., dial:

202-686-4000

When calling outside your local area, or "long distance," it is necessary to dial "1" before the area code. Be careful not to confuse the letter "I" with the numeral "1" or the letter "O" with the numeral "0" (zero).

For example, when calling CIES from outside the metropolitan Washington, D.C. area, dial:

1-202-686-4000

Operator-assisted calls and calls from hotels include a substantial service charge. All numbers in the United States can be dialed directly (that is, without operator assistance), and overseas calls can also be dialed from many local exchanges. To ask an operator for assistance, dial "0." They will be able to give you the area or international code for the city or country you wish to call and place "collect" calls (which are billed to the person called) and "person-to-person" calls (which incur a charge only if the person you wish to speak to is present, even if the phone is answered). It is also useful to remember that you can often save about 35 percent of the cost if you dial domestic long distance calls after 5 p.m. and 60 percent if you call between 11 p.m. and 8 a.m. on weekdays, all day on Saturday, and before 5 p.m. on Sundays or holidays. This may vary, however, according to the long distance provider you choose. Some businesses in the United States have "800," "888," or "877" as an area code; such numbers can be dialed (preceded by "1") without charge to the caller from anywhere in the United States.

Telephone calls to numbers with "900" or "700" area codes cost more than normal long distance calls—sometimes as much as $50 for a one-minute call! By dialing these numbers, you can order products, get financial tips, talk with a willing stranger and much more. Although some legitimate services are provided through 900 numbers, it is vital to be aware that ALL of them cost a significant amount of money.

There are two kinds of telephone directories: "white pages," which list individuals and businesses alphabetically by name, and "yellow pages," which list organizations and individuals according to their business or profession. Directories give addresses as well as phone numbers. If a directory is not available, you can obtain a local number by calling "information" (dial "411"), and a long distance number can be obtained by dialing the area code followed by 555-1212. There is usually a fee assessed for this information.

In many cities, there is a special number ("911") to use in the event of an emergency. It can be dialed from a pay phone without the use of coins. There are also special numbers, listed in the local directory, that give you a recorded message with the current time, a weather report, a joke or recipe of the day.

Public coin-operated telephones can be found on the street and in railroad and bus stations, airports, hotels, restaurants, drugstores and other public buildings. The charge is between $0.25 and $0.50 for each local call. With prepaid telephone debit cards, you may place local, long distance and international calls from any location without the necessity of coins for a pay phone or a long distance account with a U.S. telephone company. You may purchase these cards in various increments at convenience stores, supermarkets and post offices or through your telephone company. Some prepaid cards can be recharged. Be sure to compare

rates of cards before purchasing one, as all cards to do not provide the same value.

To have a telephone installed in your home, dial the telephone company's business office (see the telephone directory). Ordinarily, service can be provided within a week. The company charges for initial installation of the line, a monthly fee for local service and rental of equipment (or you may purchase your own phone), with extra charges for long distance calls. A deposit of approximately $50 will usually be required of new subscribers. Although there will be only one company providing local telephone service in a given area, you will be given information and asked to make a selection on a number of competing long distance companies and their individual service options. If you have a long distance account with a U.S. telephone company and plan to place international long distance calls frequently, you may wish to enroll in your company's international calling plan. These plans offer special discounts for international calls and can save you a lot of money.

Telephone Answering Machines and Voice Mail. Telephone answering machines or voice mail are used frequently in many U.S. homes and offices. When you encounter these machines, it is customary to leave a message with your name, telephone number and time of message in order for the person to return your call. Although this may seem impersonal at first, you will soon become accustomed to this practice.

Telegrams and Cables. As in the case of telephones, telegraph and cable services are also provided by private companies such as Western Union. Messages can be taken to the companies' local offices, dictated to them over the telephone or submitted online over the Internet.

Fax and Electronic Mail. Americans frequently communicate with others by facsimile (fax) machine or electronic mail (e-mail). It is common to seek out information and communicate with others by computer. Americans do not consider this impersonal and many people, particularly in professional settings, prefer to communicate by e-mail rather than use the phone. E-mail allows you to correspond with anyone in the world with an Internet account. Innovations such as the World Wide Web, newsgroups and online forums allow you to obtain news and specialized information. Ask your host institution about acquiring and using an Internet account, or register at http://www.fulbrightweb.org to get a free lifetime e-mail account.

Sending information by fax is a common way to conduct business, because it is quick and costs the same as a telephone call. Fax machines are available in most college and university departments. Some stores also provide fax services for a modest fee.

Media (Newspapers, Radio, Television). The press in the United States is independent and free of governmental control. The editorial policy of each television (TV) station, radio station or newspaper is determined by its owners. Advertisers support most outlets financially, although there are "public" TV and

radio stations that do not broadcast commercials and are supported by contributions from individuals, foundations and corporations. Public stations usually feature more educational and cultural programs than the commercial ones.

Daily and weekly local newspapers are abundant, but it is also possible to purchase or subscribe to daily papers of regional or national stature. Among the latter, *The New York Times* is best known for general news coverage; *The Wall Street Journal*, for financial and business news. Weekday editions of local papers cost between $0.25 and $.50; Sunday editions, which usually have many sections, cost $1.50-$3.00. Many newspapers are also available on the Internet.

There are four nationwide TV and radio networks (NBC, CBS, ABC and Fox), each with affiliated local stations that carry almost all the networks' programs. These are in addition to independent local commercial and public stations. In most areas, therefore, one can choose from among six to 10 stations. There is no fee for TV or radio usage unless one subscribes to a "cable service," which offers special programming such as recent movies and CNN and requires the installation of special equipment. CNN and the public access stations in your area often broadcast news in a variety of foreign languages. They may provide more information about current events in your home country than is available in the local newspapers.

TRANSPORTATION

Local Public Transportation. Without question, the private automobile is the most widely used form of transportation in the United States. There is one car on the road for every two people. Americans jump into their cars for errands even a few blocks from home and view them as an important source of recreation. Because of the prevalence of automobiles, public transportation is less common in the United States than in many other parts of the world. In some rural areas of the United States, it is virtually nonexistent. Unless you can afford to purchase an automobile, it is important to investigate the availability of transportation before you decide where to live.

Cities are served by both public and private bus systems (some of the larger ones have subways, as well). Buses frequently require exact change unless the passenger holds a monthly or weekly pass purchased earlier, while subways are entered with tickets or tokens that can be purchased at the time of travel. It is convenient to purchase a supply to avoid waiting in line each time you travel. There is less need for a private car in these areas unless you intend to travel outside the city with some frequency. Cars can be more trouble then they are worth, given the scarcity of parking spaces in most cities.

Long Distance Travel (Planes, Trains, Buses). The United States is covered with a network of air routes, and service is frequent to most destinations. Because distances are great and high value is placed on time, Americans frequently choose air travel, despite its relatively high cost. You can easily obtain information on flights and costs by telephone or on the Internet and even reserve a seat that can be paid for in advance by credit card or when you arrive at the airport to

board your flight. Most planes have both first-class and coach- or economy-seating areas. Special low-cost fares, known as "super savers," are sometimes offered, although they may carry restrictions as to the length of stay and the days of travel. The lowest fares must often be purchased at least seven to 21 days in advance and require that you stay over a Saturday night. Also, bus transportation from the airport to the city center is usually available and less expensive than taxis.

Commuter rail lines that reach 50 to 60 miles outside major cities serve many suburban areas. The use of trains for more extensive trips had declined until a decade or so ago, but the railroad is making a comeback to some extent. The passenger service is provided by AMTRAK and runs trains across the country but to a limited number of cities. A few of the trains travel through particularly impressive scenery and are popular with tourists. Most trains offer two classes of service, first-class and coach, and some provide sleeping accommodations. AMTRAK also offers a Eurail-style pass especially for foreign travelers. A 15- or 30-day USA Rail Pass is available for regional or nationwide travel. This pass is only available for non-U.S. and non-Canadian citizens, and has higher rates for summertime travel. USA Rail Passes may be purchased at any AMTRAK station, but make sure to bring your passport with you when you reserve the tickets. The AMTRAK telephone number is 1-800-872-7245. The Web site is http://www.amtrak.com.

The least expensive mode of transportation is a bus, and those that provide long distance service can be remarkably comfortable—with reclining seats, air conditioning and rest rooms.

Airlines, train companies and bus companies sell passes that permit extensive travel within a given time period well below the usual cost and permit those with limited funds to see a good deal of the country. The companies themselves (see the telephone directory) or travel agents can tell you current prices and conditions, but some passes must be purchased before you leave your home country.

If you find yourself in an airport with any kind of problem, you should seek a representative of the Travelers' Aid Society. This organization has desks in airports (and some railroad stations and bus terminals) across the country, operated by staff ready to assist with emergencies of all kinds, including illness, lost tickets, lack of funds and language problems.

Automobiles. Tourists may use the driver's license of their own country for up to one year. Other international visitors are expected to apply for a license in the state in which they reside. Some states will not issue automobile insurance to persons who do not have a valid U.S. driver's license. To obtain a license, visit the local office of the state motor vehicle bureau (see the telephone directory). Be prepared to present two forms of identification to prove identity and date of birth along with your immigration documents. Some states will also require that you have a social security number or proof of residence, such as a piece of official mail (for example, a utility or telephone bill sent to your U.S. residential address).

If you have a valid license from home, the driving test required of new drivers will probably be waived, but you will be asked to take a written test proving you understand the rules of the U.S. road. The bureau will give you a book outlining the rules, which you can read through in an hour or so before you sit for the test. In most states, licenses are issued only to those over 16 years of age.

You may bring a car into the country for your personal use for up to one year without payment of a customs duty, but you will have to comply with the insurance and registration regulations noted below. If you remain beyond a year or wish to sell your car before you depart, you will be charged the duty in effect at the time you entered the United States.

There are many car rental agencies all over the country, and they can be found at all major airports. Cars can be rented by the day, week, month or year; usually the fee is based on the duration of the rental and, in some cases, a mileage charge. There are also a variety of other options, including free mileage rentals. Gasoline is sometimes included in the fee or it may cost extra. You must present the agency with a valid driver's license. Most agencies demand a credit card before they will rent a vehicle. Some agencies accept cash but ask for a substantial deposit and return any excess when the final bill is settled.

If you wish to purchase an automobile, whether new or used, it is a good idea to ask a colleague to accompany you to the car dealership. There is a great art to buying cars in the United States, and you will be glad for an experienced guide. For example, this is one occasion where bargaining is the rule, and many options regarding equipment, services and financing will be offered that can cause confusion. You should always ask to test drive the car and, if it is used, have it checked by an independent mechanic before you sign the purchase papers.

In addition to the vehicle's purchase price, you must expect to pay local or state sales tax, a registration fee, personal property tax and insurance premiums. Public liability and property damage insurance is compulsory in most states and advisable everywhere, and it can be a costly item. This protects you financially in the event your vehicle injures someone or damages property. It is also wise to insure yourself against fire, theft or damage to the vehicle itself. Costs of these items vary so widely from area to area that it is advisable for you to discuss them with colleagues when you arrive at your university. Holders of J-1 visas are eligible for reasonably priced automobile insurance from the American Automobile Association (AAA). Some scholars have found that certification of a safe driving record from home helps to facilitate the purchasing of automobile insurance.

Gasoline (also called gas), sold by the gallon (slightly less than four liters), is usually available in three unleaded grades, each designed for different sized engines. (Environmental laws require cars in the United States to use unleaded gas.) Diesel fuel is also available but less frequently. Gas stations (also called service stations) also provide rest room facilities as a convenience to the traveler.

Generally, U.S. drivers obey the rules of the road, and you would do well and be safer if you follow their example. The laws are strictly enforced, and ignorance of them is not considered an excuse. Parking rules are clearly posted on the roadsides, and fines are imposed (or cars towed away) if they are not observed. Moving violations (passing in a no-passing zone, speeding, driving through a red light) are considered the most serious and carry the heaviest fines. Speed limits are also posted; the maximum speed limit permitted on highways varies by state and type of road. Further, there is a major campaign in the United States to prevent driving under the influence of alcohol and penalties for doing so are severe.

To protect yourself and your property, never pick up people you do not know, never leave the keys in the ignition, never leave packages visible in the car and be sure to close all windows and lock car doors whenever you park.

Medical Care

Importance of Insurance. Medical care in the United States can be extremely costly. Unlike many countries, the United States does not have a national health care plan. Rather, health insurance is organized on a private, paying basis and insurance policies vary widely in what they cover. To guard against financial hardship, if you should become ill or have an accident while in the United States, you must hold adequate health and accident insurance.

We strongly suggest you carefully review your health insurance coverage. You need to determine whether the coverage provided by your Fulbright grant is sufficient enough. If you determine that the policy does not meet your needs, it is recommended that you consider purchasing a supplemental policy. Prior to purchasing any supplemental plan you should compare the United States Department of State supplemental policy with those available through your university.

The J-1 and J-2 exchange visitor status requires health insurance coverage at levels in compliance with the Exchange Visitor Program Regulations. Fulbright grants include medical insurance for the grantee, but grantees must purchase health coverage for their family members. It is essential that visiting scholars make certain their accompanying dependents are adequately insured. Failure to purchase dependent insurance could result in termination of your grant.

Preexisting Conditions. The insurance provided in your grant does not cover treatment for any preexisting condition, which is a medical problem that is known to have existed before the grant period began. (For grantees, pregnancy is not defined as a preexisting condition.) If you have such a condition, you should retain or obtain your own insurance to cover this condition if treatments are necessary during the grant period. Please consult your insurance booklet for more details about the extent of your coverage.

Doctors, Dentists and Hospitals. It is a good idea to identify a physician and a dentist, as well as learn the location of the nearest hospital when you move into a new community. This information will prepare you in

the event of a medical emergency. Unless you have health problems that require the attention of a highly specialized doctor, an "internist" or "general practitioner" will probably meet your needs. Additionally, there are physicians specializing in "family practice" who care for the entire family, "pediatricians" who treat children through the teen years, and "obstetricians/gynecologists" (two specialties usually combined) who are concerned with female health and childbirth. Discuss your needs and preferences with colleagues and neighbors and ask whom they would recommend and the charges to expect. You may also wish to inquire about doctors and medical services at the hospital, health center or clinic on your university campus. However, you should be aware that *general checkups are not covered by the insurance provided as a benefit of your grant, so you should not make an appointment unless you are sick or injured and need treatment.*

When you go to a doctor, you will be asked many questions. The doctor will expect you to give details about your symptoms—what they feel like, whether they are more noticeable under some conditions than others, how long you have had them and so on. The doctor will also ask what treatments you have already tried.

The doctor will expect you to discuss your symptoms objectively, even though you may feel uncomfortable or fearful. This approach does not necessarily mean that the doctor is unsympathetic; rather, the doctor is attempting to be efficient and thorough, reflecting the high value Americans generally place on those qualities.

In the U.S. health care system, patients are encouraged to take responsibility for themselves by asking the doctors (or other caregivers) questions about their condition and its treatment. Patients are expected to ask about the costs of recommended treatment and may be asked to participate in making decisions about treatment and medications. If the doctor does not know the likely costs, you should ask another member of the doctor's staff.

Notice that this general approach differs significantly from approaches in some other societies, where (1) the doctor is expected to understand the patient's condition without relying so much on information the patient provides in response to the doctor's questions, and (2) patients are not expected to be so self-reliant.

It may be necessary to pay for medical services before you leave the hospital or doctor's office. This is usually done by personal check. Be sure to request a receipt indicating the diagnosis and treatment in order to request reimbursement from the insurance company if you are covered for the care you received. You and/or the attending physician's office must also complete a claim form and submit it to the insurance company. See your health care policy for instructions on submitting claims.

Common Misconceptions about Health Insurance. Scholars from other countries often have difficulty understanding how the health insurance system works. Here are some common misconceptions about U.S. health insurance:

- *If I have health insurance, all my medical expenses will be covered.* They will not. Please refer to your insurance brochure.
- *Any visit to the hospital emergency room will be paid for if I have health insurance.* An emergency room visit is covered only in case of a genuine emergency, as defined by the health insurance company. Usually this means a serious accident or life-threatening illness. Even if insurance covers an emergency room visit, the patient will still have to pay the deductible (the amount of money you are expected to contribute for your medical treatment).
- *The insurance company's job is to help me meet my medical expenses.* Yes and no. The insurance company's job is to fulfill the terms of the contract it has with you. But insurance is a business; insurance companies operate in order to make a profit (by investing the money people pay for insurance). Insurance companies can be better or worse, and insurance policies can be better or worse, but in no case do insurance companies operate like charitable organizations. The doctor or hospital considers it your responsibility to pay your bills and not the insurance company's.

Emergencies. In many communities, dialing the telephone number "911" will bring you emergency aid—police, fire department or ambulance. You can also dial "0" and ask the operator to locate assistance in all areas. Ambulances are generally well staffed and equipped with the life-sustaining apparatus needed to transport patients to the hospital safely. Hospitals provide 24-hour emergency services. If you become seriously ill or have an accident, go directly to the emergency room of the nearest hospital.

If you are not seriously ill or injured enough to make an appointment or get to the hospital on your own, do not dial "911," request an ambulance or go to an emergency room. Insurance will not cover expenses incurred during a hospital emergency room visit that is not an emergency in nature.

Pharmacies. Also called drugstores, pharmacies sell many health remedies "over-the-counter," that is, without a doctor's prescription. On the other hand, law forbids them to dispense certain medications without specific authorization from a physician. Most towns have at least one drugstore that is open 24 hours a day.

Drugs, especially those sold under brand names, can be very expensive, and many pharmacies offer the customer the option of filling prescriptions with "generic" products. These contain the identical chemicals found in the well-known brands, but they are governmentally controlled and thus pure, safe and much less costly.

American drugstores are an interesting phenomenon to many international visitors. They almost never restrict themselves to medical items alone. Rather, you can find cosmetics, tobacco products, stationery, magazines and newspapers, housewares and snack foods.

OTHER SERVICES

A variety of service establishments are available in even the smallest towns in the United States. Dry cleaners care for clothing that cannot be cleaned with soap and water, however, men's shirts can also be taken to such establishments to be laundered and ironed. One occasionally finds separate laundries that wash and iron all kinds of clothing and linens for their clients, but these are disappearing since most Americans have washing machines and dryers at home. For those who do not, there are coin-operated laundromats where customers load the washers and dryers themselves. Many apartment buildings also provide such facilities for their tenants. Shoe repair shops will replace worn heels or soles and otherwise mend shoes and other leather items. Video stores rent tapes and digital video disks (DVDs) of movies for viewing by means of a videocassette recorder (VCR) or DVD player. Barber-shops cut men's hair, and beauty salons or parlors offer hair and other personal care services for women. Increasingly, however, these establishments are merging into "unisex" shops, meaning they serve both males and females.

RELIGION

The number of organized religious groups in the United States may surprise you. In large cities, even relatively obscure branches of the main religions have established their own churches, mosques, synagogues or temples. A list of such groups can be found in the yellow pages of the telephone directory, and many of these organizations also place notices in weekend newspapers announcing the hours of religious services. You will always be welcome to attend the services without invitation, and you may also wish to take part in the social activities many such groups sponsor.

Freedom of religion is guaranteed by the U.S. Constitution, which also mandates a separation of church and state. The practice of religion is considered a private matter, and employers, schools, clubs and other institutions may not ask your religious preference.

LEISURE

Whatever your leisure interests, you will find a great many pursuits to choose from (in addition to the suggestions for spouses in the Campus and Community Life section in Chapter 5). Those who prefer the spectator's role will find that university towns abound in concerts, plays, sporting events, ethnic festivals and movies—the favored entertainment of young Americans. There are also small museums all over the country, with a number of distinguished institutions in the major cities that house outstanding collections of fine and applied art or objects of historical or scientific interest. Local newspapers (also the campus paper) regularly list upcoming events. City hotels distribute free booklets to visitors listing current cultural events as well as nearby points of interest with their hours of operation.

If you prefer a more active role, you will find it easy to join groups that make music, produce plays, or organize baseball, soccer or basketball games. There are golf courses, tennis courts, swimming pools, skating rinks and bowling alleys open to the public for a modest fee. Again,

colleagues and neighbors will be glad to point you in the right direction.

SAFETY

Many visitors to the United States are concerned about public order and safety, and it is true that certain precautions should be taken, especially in urban areas. It is best to ask a colleague for advice about which areas are safe if you will be residing in a large city, but a few general rules should be observed at all times:

- Do not leave a room, house, or car with doors or windows unlocked.
- Do not carry valuables or large sums of cash with you.
- Do not frequent parks or deserted public places after dark.
- Do not attempt to arm yourself since any weapon you carry can be used against you.
- Do not resist a robber or mugger.
- Do not pick up hitchhikers.
- Do not permit your preteenage children outside the house alone after dark.
- Avoid using bank ATMs alone after dark.

Be aware that many university security departments offer escort services for students and faculty during the evening hours. These suggestions are not made to frighten you, for it is very unlikely that you will experience any problems. You can be most certain of avoiding difficulties, however, if you follow these simple rules of safety.

THE LAW AND CIVIL RIGHTS

The United States is governed by the "rule of law." This means that the law is supreme. It must be observed by every individual, including the President and other public officials, and can be changed only through established legislative procedures. The law also offers everyone its equal protection; it applies equally to all persons in their lives, liberty, property and in their pursuit of happiness, regardless of position or wealth.

The Constitution of the United States sets forth the basic principles and framework of U.S. government, including the principles that regulate the relationship between the government and the citizens. With the exception of a few laws that regulate such matters as immigration and voting, foreign nationals enjoy the same rights and privileges as American citizens. They also have the same obligations under the law.

The first 10 amendments to the Constitution, collectively termed the Bill of Rights, contain this country's most cherished legal principles guaranteeing rights and privileges to the individual, among which are

- the right to freedom of religion, speech, press, and assembly;
- the right to refuse to testify against oneself, to keep silent rather than incriminate oneself;
- the right to protection against unreasonable search and seizure;
- the right to "due process" of law – the right to be treated fairly by the government whenever

the loss of liberty or property is at stake, both procedurally, in terms of guaranteeing an individual fair procedures, and substantively, in terms of protecting a person's property from unfair governmental interference or taking. For example, in the United States, an individual charged with a crime is presumed innocent until proven guilty and criminal cases are required to follow certain procedural steps before a final determination is made. Among other things, the U.S. Constitution provides a criminal defendant the right to court-appointed counsel in the case of financial hardship.

In contrast to criminal law, civil law is concerned with civil or private rights and remedies. An individual may bring a civil action in a court of law to enforce, redress or protect private rights, including, for example, contractual rights.

Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is taken very seriously in the USA. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended ("Title VII") prohibits employers from harassing employees on the basis of race, color, sex, national origin or religion. Sexual harassment is considered a type of sex discrimination prohibited by Title VII. In addition to the federal law prohibition on sexual harassment, many private institutions, including colleges and universities, have adopted their own sexual harassment policies that extend beyond the workplace and often provide similar protections for students.

Title VII defines sexual harassment to include unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal or physical behavior of a sexual nature that, among other things, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive environment. This behavior includes inappropriate use of technology at the workplace, such as using the Internet or e-mail for sexually harassing another or for any kind of sexual displays, such as pornography.

Based on your own cultural experiences, you may believe that sexual harassment is not a possible occurrence, or that it won't happen to you. In some cultures, for example, sexual harassment between a faculty member and a student could never occur because, unlike in the United States, informal relationships between faculty and students are just not possible. Some cultures may assume that a woman appearing in public alone or being friendly to men is announcing her availability for sexual activity. Or, it may be assumed that relationships between men and women are primarily romantic or sexual. In the United States, however, women frequently appear alone in public with the expectation that they will be treated non-sexually, and men and women typically interact on a non-sexual basis as colleagues and friends. Consequently, it is important to be aware of the ways in which relationships between men and women in the United States may differ

from relationships between men and women in your country.

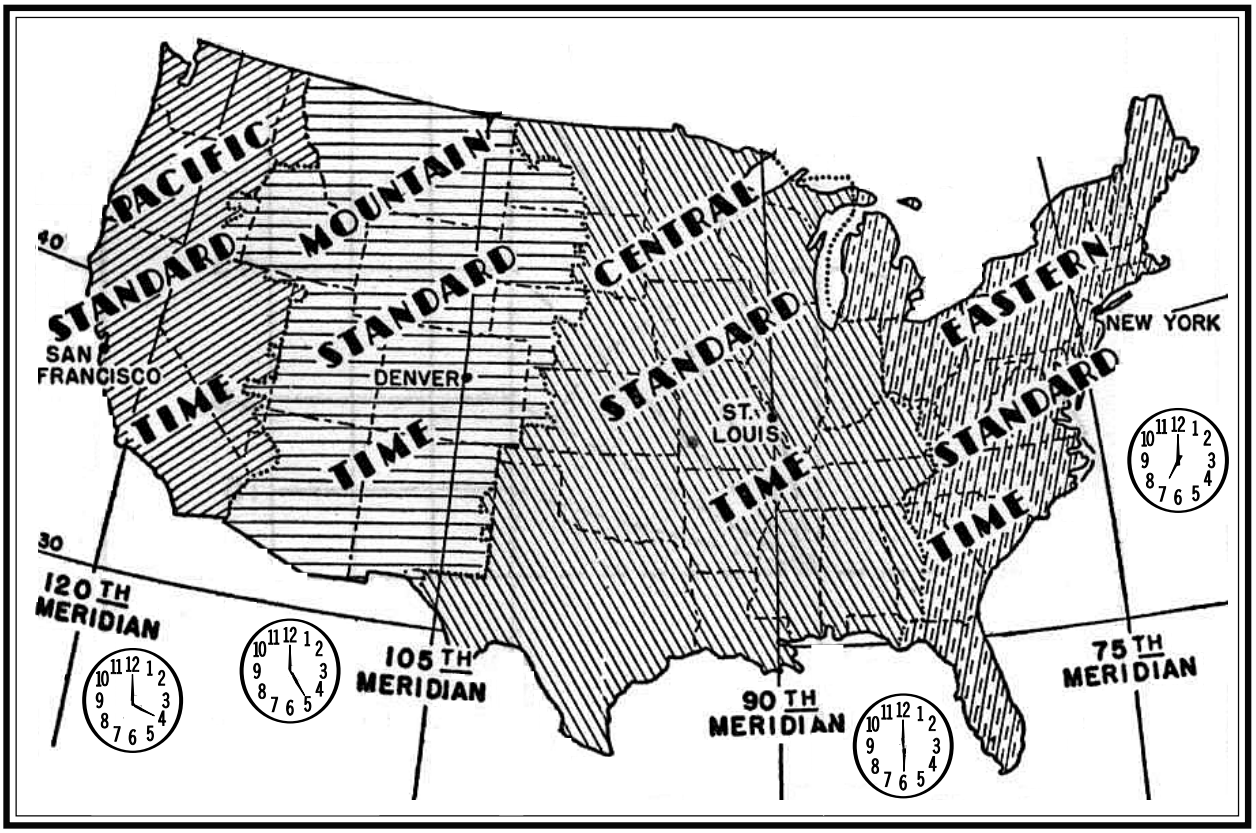
If you feel that you have been sexually harassed, you should tell the harasser to stop and tell a trusted member of the faculty or staff (Office of International Student and Scholar Services, University Counseling Center or Dean of Students) at your university, or the Human Resources or Personnel Department if you have a non-academic affiliation. They will be able to advise you on how to file a complaint if you wish to do so.

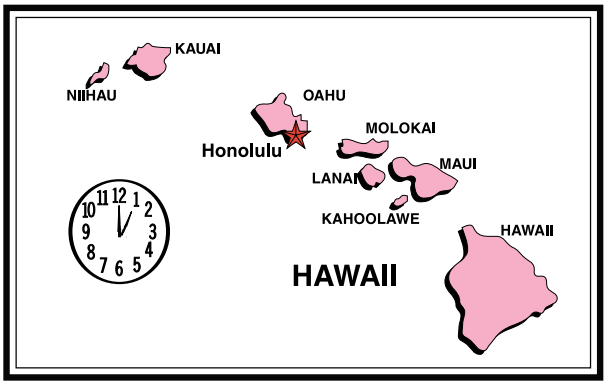
Information adapted from: http://isss.binghamton.edu/pubs/sexharas.html

CHAPTER III: OTHER USEFUL FACTS

TIME ZONES

The continental United States is divided into four time zones, as shown on the map below. The relative times for the outlying states are also indicated. Eastern standard time is five hours earlier than Greenwich mean time. Most states observe daylight saving time during the summer months. This means that clocks are advanced one hour on a given date in April and restored to standard time in October. (They "spring forward" in the





spring, "fall back" in the fall.) Exceptions to this rule are made in Arizona, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, American Samoa and most of Indiana. Arrival and departure times of planes and trains are usually given in the current time of the arrival or departure point.

Hours of Business

Offices are usually open from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m., Monday through Friday, with employees taking an hour for lunch sometime between noon and 2 p.m. Banks are generally open to the public only until 2 p.m. or 3 p.m., but many now have ATMs that dispense cash from your account or accept deposits 24 hours per day.

Shops open at about 9:30 a.m. and remain open continuously until 5:30 p.m. or 6 p.m., often until 9 p.m. one evening per week. All are open Monday through Saturday. Most shops in suburban malls are open until 9 p.m., Monday through Saturday, and usually from noon to 5 p.m. on Sundays. Drugstores, supermarkets and smaller food shops usually remain open until late in the evening and on Sundays.

Electricity

Electrical current in the United States is produced at 110 volts, 60 cycles. Appliances manufactured for other voltages can be operated only with a transformer. Even so equipped, appliances with clocks or timers will not function properly, nor will television sets not built for the U.S. color system (N.T.S.C.).

Climate

You will find Americans pay a great deal of attention to the weather. Radio and television stations regularly broadcast forecasts, and you can telephone the weather bureau for a recorded, up-to-the-minute report. To a certain extent, Americans are insulated from weather extremes. Homes, offices, cars and buses are routinely air conditioned in the warmer parts of the country, and central heating is the rule everywhere. Indoor temperatures are thus maintained at 20–22 ºC (68–72 ºF).

Because of its size and geographical diversity, the climate in different parts of the United States varies widely.

Temperature

*Fahrenheit (ºF)**	*Celsius (ºC)*
23	-5
32 (freezing)	0
41	5
5 0	10
59	15
68	20
77	25
86	30
95	35
104	40
»	»
212	100

* ºF=9/5 ºC +32

The Northeastern States or New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont): Winters can be very cold and long with lots of snow. In the north, winters can be very severe. Fall and spring are usually cool and crisp. Summers, while short, are quite pleasant. Obviously, there will be some variation as one moves from the Atlantic beaches to the mountains in the west. You will find cooling fog along the coasts during winter and summer.

The Mid-Atlantic Region (Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Virginia, Washington, D.C.): Summers tend to be hotter and more humid than in New England, and late afternoon or early evening thunderstorms are not uncommon. Winters, while milder and a little shorter, can still produce a lot of snow. Spring and fall are very pleasant with relatively low humidity.

The Southeastern States (Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, West Virginia): The southernmost states have long, hot and humid summers and relatively warm winters; with the exception of the mountainous regions of West Virginia and the Carolinas, snowfall is rare. Summertime, with its high humidity, can bring frequent but short-lived thunderstorms. Along the Atlantic coast, the hurricane season lasts from July to October. Southern Florida has an almost tropical climate where freezing temperatures are uncommon.

Upper Midwest (Michigan, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin): Winters in this region can be severe with blizzards and much snow for up to five months. Like New England, summers are short but pleasant.

Midwest (Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio): This region occupies the Great Plains, a vast, flat expanse located in the center of the country. Winter snowfall can be heavy. Summers can be quite hot with frequent heat waves and drought.

The Southern Interior and Gulf States (Alabama, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Texas): Summers are hot and frequently humid, especially along the Gulf of Mexico. Average winter temperatures rarely fall below freezing, but there are occasional cold spells including rare ice storms and snow. As with the Atlantic coast, the hurricane season on the Gulf Coast lasts from July to October.

The Rocky Mountain Region (Arizona, Colorado, Southern Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming): Because of the range of altitudes in this mountainous region, there is considerable variety in local temperature and precipitation. Winters are very cold in the mountains and bring heavy snowfalls. Large areas of Arizona, New Mexico, Utah and Nevada are desert, where even winters can be extremely hot and dry.

The Pacific Northwest (Northern Idaho, Oregon, Washington): The region enjoys mild winters and moderately warm summers. Weather and climate are similar to that of northwest Europe and Britain. The Pacific Ocean helps keep the weather mild year-round and wet along the coast, with a number of rainy days.

California: Southern California, including Los Angeles and San Diego, enjoy warm to very hot but dry summers,

while the winters are mild and moderately rainy. "Smog" (fog and pollution) is a problem in Los Angeles. Northern California, including Berkeley and San Francisco, has a cooler, milder climate year-round. San Francisco is known for its morning fog.

Alaska: Alaska is the most northwestern state of the United States and borders northwest Canada. It has long, snowy, frigid winters with snow lasting three to four months, and short, mild summers. Days during mid-winter will only have three to four hours of daylight, and in mid-summer, only three to four hours of darkness.

Hawaii: A chain of tropical islands in the Pacific Ocean, Hawaii is situated approximately six hours or 6,900 miles from the west coast of the United States by airplane. Warm temperatures and low humidity make the weather comfortable year round.

DISTANCE

Unit	*Equivalent*	*Metric*
inch (in)		2.54 centimeters (cm)
foot (ft)	12 in	30.48 cm
yard (yd)	36 in (3ft)	.91 meters (m)
mile (mi)	5,280 ft	1.61 kilometers (km)
100 mi		160 km
0.39 in		1 cm
3.28 ft		1 m
0.62 mi		1 km
5 mi		8 km

Sources. Pearce, E.A., and Gordon Smith. World Weather Guide. Time Books/Random House, 1990.
United States Climate Regions.http://encarta.msn.com/find/MediaMax.asp?pg=3&ti=1741500822&idx=461544522

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The United States is moving slowly—very slowly—toward adoption of the metric system. As of yet, few Americans speak of weights and measures in metric terms.

AREA

Unit	*Equivalent*	*Metric*
acre	4,840 square yards	0.405 hectares
square miles	640 acres	2.590 square km

VOLUME

Unit	*Equivalent*	*Metric*
teaspoon (tsp)		5 milliliters (mL)
tablespoon (tbs)		15 mL
ounce (oz)		29.57 mL
cup (c)	8 oz	0.237 liters (L)
pint (pt)	2 c	0.551 L
quart (qt)	2 pt	1.101 L
gallon (gal)	4 qt	3.785 L
0.34 oz		10 mL
1.06 qt		1 L
0.26 gal		1 L

WEIGHT

Unit	*Equivalent*	*Metric*
pound (lb)	16 oz	0.454 kilogram (kg)
ounce (oz)	1.0 oz	28.35 gram (g)
ton	2,000 lbs	0.907 metric ton
0.04 oz		1 g
2.20 lb		1 kg

Children's clothing is sized according to the child's age from infancy through approximately six years. Infants' clothing is sized according to months of age, from newborn (NB) through 18 to 24 months. It is always wise to consider the child's height and weight when buying clothing. It is not uncommon for infants and toddlers to wear much larger sizes than what their age indicates. It is a good idea to ask a salesperson for assistance until you are familiar with children's clothing sizes.

Adult clothing sizes vary somewhat from one manufacturer to another. It is wise to try on clothing before making a purchase. Most stores offer dressing rooms that allow you to try clothes on in order to verify that they fit properly before you purchase them.

COMPARABLE CLOTHING SIZES

Women's sizes						
Junior						
USA	5	7	9	11	13	15
Europe	32	34	36	38	40	42
Misses						
USA/England	8	10	12	14	16	18
Europe	36	38	40	42	44	46
Women's						
USA/England	34	36	38	40	42	44
Europe	42	44	46	48	50	42
Shoes						
USA	5	6	7	8	9	10
Metric	36	37	38	39	40	41
Men's sizes						
Coats/Pajamas						
USA/England	36	38	40	42	44	46
Europe	46	48	50	42	54	56
Shirts						
USA/England	14	14½	15	15½	16	16½
Europe	36	37	38	39	40	41
Shoes						
USA	6	7	8	9	10	11
Metric	39	40	41	42	43	44

HOLIDAYS

New Year's Day (January 1)
Official holiday*

Birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr.
(Third Monday in January)
Official holiday*
Martin Luther King, Jr., a distinguished African American, organized and led the civil rights movement in the United States during the 1960s. During the 1963 March on Washington, he delivered the stirring and memorable "I have a dream…" speech to a quarter of a million people gathered before the Lincoln Memorial.

Groundhog Day (February 2)
Not an official holiday
The groundhog is a small burrowing animal that hibernates during the winter months. Legend has it that he emerges on February 2. If he sees his shadow (sunny day), he will be frightened and return to his burrow. This is supposed to indicate six more weeks of wintry weather. If he does not see his shadow, spring is near.

Valentine's Day (February 14)
Not an official holiday
A holiday celebrated by sending cards and giving flowers and candy in heart-shaped boxes to loved ones.

Presidents' Day (Third Monday in February)
Official holiday*
This holiday commemorates the birthdays of George Washington, the first president of the United States, and Abraham Lincoln, president during the Civil War (1861–65).

Saint Patrick's Day (March 17)
Not an official holiday
Saint Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland, and Irish immigrants brought this holiday to the United States. People mark this day by wearing green clothing and getting together with friends to celebrate and sing Irish songs. Some U.S. cities with large Irish American populations, like Boston and New York, also hold Saint Patrick's Day parades.

April Fools' Day (April 1)
Not an official holiday
As in many other countries, this day is marked by the custom of playing harmless practical jokes on friends and colleagues.

Passover (8 days, usually in April)
Not an official holiday
The Jewish holiday of Passover commemorates the liberation of the ancient Hebrews from slavery in Egypt in 1200 B.C. A highlight of the festival is the Seder, a ceremonial dinner attended by family and friends, during which the memory of the exodus is recounted through readings, singing, and the consumption of symbolic foods. Unleavened bread or matzoh is eaten during this time.

Easter (One Sunday in spring)
Not an official holiday
Easter is an important religious holiday for Christians, who believe that Christ rose from the dead on this day. Many folk traditions are now connected with Easter, including the decoration of brightly colored eggs and the presentation of baskets of candy to children. If you are in the United States around the time of this holiday, you

may also see the Easter Bunny, who is available at shopping malls to have his picture taken with children.

Mother's Day (Second Sunday in May)

Not an official holiday

On this day, Americans honor their mothers by sending them flowers, buying them small gifts, and taking them out to eat so that they do not have to do any work around the house.

Father's Day (Third Sunday in June)

Not an official holiday

Fathers are honored on this day with cards and gifts from their family members.

Memorial Day (Last Monday in May)

Official holiday*

Memorial Day is the day on which people in the United States honor those who died in the service of their country. Many families visit their loved ones' graves and decorate them with flowers. The day is also marked with patriotic parades. This holiday is considered the beginning of the summer season.

Independence Day (July 4)

Official holiday*

Independence Day commemorates the day the U.S. Declaration of Independence was signed in Philadelphia on July 4, 1776. Independence Day is celebrated all over the country with picnics, political speeches, parades and community gatherings that culminate in firework displays.

Labor Day (First Monday in September)

Official holiday*

This holiday was established in recognition of the labor movement's contribution to the productivity of the country. This day marks the end of the summer season and is celebrated with picnics and other outings.

Rosh Hashanah and Yom Kippur (3 days in September and October)

Not official holidays

The holidays of Rosh Hashanah (New Year) and Yom Kippur (Day of Atonement) and the ten-day interval between them comprise the most sacred period in the Jewish calendar. Known as the High Holy Days, this period combines the welcoming of the New Year with reflective examination of the course of one's life during the past year. Prayer, family feasts and the sending of New Year's greetings characterize Rosh Hashanah. Yom Kippur, the holiest day in the Jewish year, is a time of fasting and prayer.

Columbus Day (Second Monday in October)

Official holiday in many states

By popular tradition, Columbus "discovered" America in 1492, although the continent was already populated by Native Americans and had been visited earlier by other seafarers. The holiday, originally and still occasionally celebrated on October 12, is observed with parades and festivals. In the Northeast, the long weekend is the high point of the season for viewing the brilliantly colored fall leaves.

Halloween (October 31)

Not an official holiday

In the United States, this day, the eve of a Christian holiday—All Hallows' or All Saints' Day, which falls on November 1—has lost its original religious character. Today, it is largely celebrated as a children's day. Traditions include carving out pumpkins with funny

faces (jack-o'-lanterns), telling scary stories, and going door to door in costume to receive candy and treats from neighbors. When a door opens after they knock, the children say, "trick or treat," meaning, "if you don't give me a treat, I will trick you." Many children and adults also attend costume parties and decorate their homes to celebrate Halloween.

Veterans Day (November 11)

Official holiday in many states

Originally established to commemorate Armistice Day—the end of the First World War—and celebrated on November 11, the date still observed in some areas, the holiday was changed after World War II to serve as an occasion to pay tribute to veterans of all wars. It is marked by parades, speeches and wreath laying at military cemeteries and war memorials.

Ramadan (One Month, based on lunar calendar)

Not an official holiday

This Muslim holiday is a month-long period of charity, fasting, prayer and self-reflection. Ramadan is the ninth month of the Islamic calendar, which is lunar with each month beginning at the sighting of a new moon. Since the lunar calendar is 11 days shorter than the solar calendar, Ramadan "moves" each year. Muslims believe it was in the month of Ramadan when Allah revealed the first verses of the Holy Qu'ran to the Prophet Mohammed.

Eid-Al-Fatr (End of Ramadan)

Not an official holiday

At the end of Ramadan, Muslims celebrate Eid-Al-Fatr, which literally means "Festival of Breaking the Fast." People celebrate by decorating their homes, feasting with friends and family and giving treats to children. During this celebration, Muslims also make contributions to the poor and to mosques.

Thanksgiving Day (Fourth Thursday in November)

Official holiday

The first Thanksgiving Day was observed by the pilgrims of Plymouth Colony in Massachusetts in 1621 to give thanks for the bountiful harvest and their ability to survive in the wilderness. Today, it is a time when Americans give thanks for the good life they enjoy. They celebrate by getting together with family and friends to eat traditional foods such as turkey, cranberry sauce, sweet potatoes and pumpkin pie.

Hanukkah (eight days, usually in December)

Not an official holiday

This Jewish holiday commemorates the successful uprising of a small band of Jews known as the Maccabees against their Hellenistic Syrian conqueror in 164 B.C. As part of the reconsecration of the Temple in Jerusalem, the victors lit a menorah, or candelabrum, with a small flask of holy oil that miraculously burned for eight days. Hanukkah thus came to be known as the "Festival of Lights" and is celebrated today by the lighting of a menorah for eight days. It is a time of conviviality and is marked by the gathering of family and friends and gift giving.

Christmas (December 25)

Official holiday*

Many people regard this as the most celebrated holiday of the year, with the Christmas season extending from a few days before December 25 to January 1, New Year's Day. Although originally a Christian holiday

commemorating the birth of Christ, people of many faiths join in the secular festivities common during this period. These include gift exchanges, the singing of holiday carols, visits to Santa Claus at the local shopping mall and the decoration of a Christmas tree. Family members travel great distances to be together for Christmas, a day on which gifts are exchanged and a traditional dinner is shared.

Kwanzaa (December 26 through January 1)

Not an official holiday

Celebrated by millions of African Americans, the nonreligious, cultural holiday of Kwanzaa celebrates family, community and African heritage. The word Kwanzaa comes from the Swahili phrase "matunda ya kwanza," which means "first fruits." For each of day of the seven-day celebration period, a different community value (for example, faith, unity) is highlighted and reflected upon. Kwanzaa was created in 1966 by Dr. Maulana Karenga, professor and chair of the Department of Black Studies at California State University, Long Beach, who stresses the importance of preserving and promoting African American culture and history.

New Year's Eve (December 31)

Not an official holiday

The night before New Year's Day is more important to Americans than New Year's Day itself. Everyone gathers with friends and family to "ring out the old and ring in the new," an expression that reflects the old custom of ringing church bells at midnight to greet the new year.

** On official holidays, schools, banks, post offices, and many businesses are closed.*

CHAPTER 4: AT THE UNIVERSITY

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The structure of education in the United States differs notably from that in most other countries. While educational systems in many areas of the world are national in character and centralized in control, education in the United States is decentralized and diversified. Under the principle of federal government, education is a responsibility of each of the 50 states, the District of Columbia and the territories. Each state has developed a system of public schools and a system of chartering and regulating private schools.

Higher education is the term used in the United States for formal education beyond the 12 years of elementary and secondary school and includes the instruction offered at two-year community and junior colleges, four-year colleges, universities that award graduate degrees and various technical and professional schools. In 2002, there were 4,048 such institutions with a student enrollment of over 14.5 million. Of this total, over 12.5 million (86 percent) were enrolled as undergraduates working toward associate's or bachelor's degrees, over 1.8 million (12 percent) were graduate students working on master's or doctoral degrees and over 300,000 (2 percent) were enrolled in professional degree programs, such as law and medicine.

Accreditation. In the United States, recognition of U.S. institutions of higher education and of certain specialized programs is achieved by means of a voluntary and continuous process known as accreditation. Accreditation is granted by recognized accrediting bodies that have no affiliation with the U.S. government. In order to become accredited, institutions or programs must meet minimum standards of quality established by the relevant accrediting bodies. In order to maintain accreditation, they must demonstrate periodically that they are continuing to meet or exceed established standards.

There are two basic types of accreditation: institutional and specialized. Institutional accreditation provides recognition to institutions as a whole. Specialized accreditation provides recognition to programs in specific disciplines. It is common for U.S. colleges and universities to seek specialized accreditation of the professional or specialized programs they offer in addition to institutional accreditation.

Types of Institutions. In everyday speech, the terms "college" and "university" are used interchangeably. However, there is a distinction. The U.S. college has no exact counterpart in the educational system of any other country. It is the nucleus from which all institutions of higher learning have developed in the United States. There are many colleges that stand alone as undergraduate institutions. Most colleges award the bachelor's (four-year) degree, although some may award the associate's (two-year) degree. The university is the outgrowth and expansion of the college. A university is made up of a group of schools that include a four-year, undergraduate liberal arts college and graduate and professional schools. Some technological and professional programs, such as those in agriculture, business administration, engineering, nursing and

teaching, are offered at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Other professions, such as medicine, dentistry and law, are studied only at the graduate level.

Institutional titles can be confusing because states have different regulations and traditions. For example, many institutions called "universities" do not offer degrees beyond the bachelor's or master's degree, while some "colleges" (such as Boston College) offer master's degrees and doctorates. A few prestigious comprehensive research universities in the country are known as "institutes" (for example Massachusetts Institute of Technology). In addition, there are institutions called colleges—institutes or universities that are not accredited but offer degrees and certificates.

Funding and Governance of Institutions of Higher Education. The financial support for U.S. higher education is derived from a number of different sources. Public colleges and universities are financed primarily by student tuition and by state, county or city governments or by a combination of several levels, and they are subject to governmental authority. Public institutions—such as the University of Maryland, the various branches of the University of California and the College of William and Mary—make up 45 percent of the total number of higher education institutions in the United States. Private institutions, which are 46 percent of the total, are governed by their own boards of trustees and are supported largely by student tuition, private individuals and groups or religious organizations. Examples of these institutions are Harvard University, Oberlin College and Georgetown University. Private colleges and universities are generally nonprofit institutions, but profit-making or proprietary educational institutions also exist at the postsecondary level. Included in this category are the Electronics Technical Institute of Denver and the Art Institute of Atlanta.

U.S. institutions of higher education are controlled by governing boards of trustees or regents and headed by a president or chancellor, who is assisted by deans. The dean of academic affairs in a small institution, or the dean of the college or school in a multi-unit university, in cooperation with the teachers of the institution (known as members of the faculty), has general authority over matters of policy, such as curriculum and degree requirements. The dean of students is responsible for the personal and social aspects of student life. Colleges and schools are organized into different departments for each field of study—English department, history department, department of plant breeding and so on—and each unit is headed by a chairperson who is a senior member of the teaching staff.

Admission. Admission to a college or university in the United States is considered a privilege and not a right. Each institution establishes admissions policies consistent with its level and mission. Some are highly competitive, others less so, but admission in all cases is based on an appraisal of the applicant's past grades, completion of prerequisite courses, scores on entrance exams that measure both aptitude and achievement and other personal factors. Letters of reference from past teachers play an important role. Undergraduate admission is usually centralized, while graduate students are

admitted only with the consent of the discipline department in which they will study.

In contrast to public education at the elementary and secondary levels, higher education in the United States is not free of charge. The student must pay tuition, fees, room and board (if living away from home) and research and thesis expenses as well as for books and materials.

Elements of Costs to Students. Tuition is the basic charge to the student to help cover the cost of instruction. Depending upon the institution, tuition for the academic year can range from under $1,000 to higher than $20,000. Generally, tuition rates are higher in private colleges and universities than in public institutions. In the latter, the rate for residents of the state, county or city is less than the rate for nonresidents. The tuition and fee charges at graduate and professional schools are generally higher than those at the undergraduate level.

In addition to tuition, students can also expect to pay $600 to $800 annually for books and other course materials and $1,500 or more in fees for such items as medical insurance, parking, laboratory materials, library privileges, computer access, campus athletic and cultural events and graduation. Graduate students incur further costs related to research and preparation of their thesis or dissertation. Students who live on the campus of a college or university pay an additional charge for room and board, usually another $5,000 to $6,500 for the academic year.

Enrollment. Despite the great expense of higher education, college and university education in the United States is more accessible today than it was prior to the 1950s. Until that time, a college education was the prerogative of the elite who could afford it. Other than competitive academic scholarships, there was little financial assistance available.

After World War II, Congress passed the G.I. Bill of Rights, which subsidized the higher education of returning veterans and opened the door for further legislation aimed at providing financial assistance to any qualified student who wanted a college degree. Today, grants, loans and other forms of financial aid are provided by the federal and state governments, as well as by other independent agencies and by the colleges themselves. The majority of students entering U.S. colleges and universities apply for and receive some form of financial assistance in the form of scholarships, loans, grants and work opportunities.

As a result of today's opportunities for a college education, a college student may represent any age group – from young adult to senior citizen – as well as diverse economic and cultural groups. The student population now includes the economically disadvantaged as well as the affluent, women now outnumber men (women account for 56 percent of enrollment), and U.S. minorities are increasingly represented (27 percent of all college students). The age of students on college campuses has also broadened beyond the traditional 18 to 22 year old undergraduate. Today, students aged 25 and over account for 37 percent of

college enrollment. There has also been a constant growth in the number of foreign students attending colleges and universities in the United States, with the number of foreign students totaling over 500,000 in 2000. Many campuses, especially those of large universities, have now added an international component to their student profiles.

FACULTY

Although elementary and secondary school teachers in the United States must be certified to teach by the state in which they practice, there is no certification requirement for those teaching in higher education. However, a Ph.D. degree is a normal prerequisite for a faculty position in major colleges and universities.

Faculty members are ranked on academic credentials, performance in teaching and research and years of service to the institution. Requirements for advancement are relatively standard in higher education institutions throughout the United States. The usual ranks are instructor, assistant professor, associate professor and (full) professor, but faculty sometimes bear the title of lecturer, adjunct professor and professor emeritus. Faculty members are usually referred to and addressed as professor, regardless of formal title.

Instructor is an introductory rank for a member of the full-time faculty; it is usually assigned to persons with limited or no college teaching experience. The time spent in the rank of instructor is often considered a probationary period. Instructors receive a one-year contract that is renewable annually for a period of three or four years, after which they may be eligible to apply for promotion to the rank of assistant professor. In some institutions, if an instructor is not promoted after the probationary period, the contract is not renewed.

Assistant professor is the more common introductory rank and usually signifies a tenure track position. (Further discussion of academic tenure is given below.) Most assistant professors have a doctorate, although there are some fields in which a terminal degree other than the doctorate is appropriate. Generally, five to seven years must be spent at this rank before a faculty member may apply for promotion or tenure. During this time, the young professor establishes his or her reputation in research and gains valuable teaching experience. If tenure is denied at the end of a set period, the faculty member may have to leave the institution.

Attaining the rank of associate professor implies that the faculty member has had broad and successful experience in a college or university, has made scholarly contributions to his or her discipline and has been actively involved in the overall life of the institution. After a specified number of years in this rank, the faculty member may apply for promotion to the rank of professor. There is no limit to the number of years that may be spent in the associate rank, nor does the denial of promotion imply dismissal.

By tradition, a professor is an academic leader who has made an outstanding contribution to scholarship as well as to the development of the institution in which he or

she is employed. The professorship is the highest academic rank awarded to an individual by a college or university. The number of full professors is limited, but there are usually several in a given department.

A lecturer is usually a faculty member who is appointed for a limited term to teach a specific set of courses.

The title of adjunct professor is sometimes given to a ranked academic who is teaching only part- time. It is also given to visiting professors, especially from universities abroad, who are serving on the faculty for a limited time.

Professor emeritus is an honorary title conferred upon an individual for long and distinguished service to the institution. It is usually given at the end of a faculty member's full-time service or at the time of retirement.

Ordinarily, the students, their peers and the administration evaluate all members of the faculty annually. The evaluation is weighted in relation to the priorities of the institution and includes the quality of the faculty member's teaching and research, participation in institutional and student affairs and contributions to the local civic community. These evaluations play a part in contract renewal, promotion in rank, the awarding of tenure or institutional honors and appointment to one or another of the institution's standing committees. In several large universities, student evaluations of individual courses are published and available through the campus bookstore.

Academic tenure is an arrangement under which faculty appointments in an institution of higher education, after a specified period of probation, are guaranteed until retirement for age or physical disability. A tenured member of the faculty is subject to dismissal only for serious cause (and after due academic process) or as a result of financial exigency or change of academic program. Systems of tenure are designed to provide the economic security that will encourage men and women of ability to choose academic careers and to ensure academic freedom. Once assigned a course, a faculty member is presumed to be an expert in the field and is free to teach it as he or she wishes, express opinions without fear of reprisal and assign grades for students that cannot be challenged.

U.S. faculty members have extensive duties. While about half their time is spent teaching and preparing for classes, they are also expected to engage in research leading to publication in scholarly journals. They must "publish or perish," which is to say that their advancement in rank, or even continuation in employment, depends heavily on their scholarly attainments. They must also spend time raising funds to support research, including any staff assistance required; advising undergraduate students; directing graduate student thesis and dissertation research; and serving on institutional committees. Many provide consulting services to government or private business as well, on both a profit-making and volunteer basis.

UNDERGRADUATE STUDY

Undergraduate students are classified according to their year of study, which is determined by the number

of credit hours they have earned. First-year students are called freshmen; second-year students, sophomores; third-year students, juniors; and fourth-year students, seniors.

The first two years of a four-year college program are usually devoted to general learning or the "liberal arts," that is, a variety of courses in the social sciences, humanities and natural sciences designed to develop intellectual ability and provide a solid cultural background. The scope of each course is usually broad. Courses that treat a vast area of subject matter, such as the history of art from prehistoric cave painting to modern, are known as survey courses. Since they survey an entire field of study, they are usually taken as introductory courses or as prerequisites for more specialized courses.

During the third and fourth years of college, students concentrate most of their courses in one discipline. The field of concentration is called a major. A number of courses are required to obtain a baccalaureate or bachelor's degree in the chosen field; other courses may be taken as electives. Each student is assigned an academic advisor who is a member of the faculty in his or her major field and who offers guidance on the choice of electives and helps solve any academic problems that arise. The B.A. (Bachelor of Arts) and B.S. (Bachelor of Science) are the most common degrees at this level, but the baccalaureate is also awarded in a few professional fields (for example, Bachelor of Nursing or Bachelor of Fine Arts).

The two-year (community, junior and technical) colleges and institutes have seen widespread expansion in the last two decades. By offering an alternative in higher education, these schools provide students not only with a liberal arts background, but also with the semiprofessional and technical training needed to prepare for employment in a highly technological world. Their programs of instruction lead to an A.A. (Associate of Arts), A.S. (Associate of Science) or A.A.S. (Associate of Applied Science) degree. A liberal arts curriculum, corresponding to the first two years of undergraduate study, is generally offered to students who wish to continue their education at a four-year institution. Other programs offer career training for positions such as dental hygienists, legal secretaries and laboratory technicians, which require special skills.

GRADUATE STUDY

Graduate work leading to a master's degree requires at least one year of study beyond the bachelor's degree, although in fields such as engineering and business administration, a two-year program is common. The typical requirements for this degree include successful completion of a specified number of graduate courses, maintenance of a minimum B grade average, and preparation of a thesis. In general, advanced studies leading to a master's degree emphasize either research or preparation for professional practice. Again, the M.A. (Master of Arts) and M.S. (Master of Science) are the traditional degrees, but professional degrees at this level include the M.B.A. (Master of Business

Administration) and M.S.W. (Master of Social Work), among a number of others.

The Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy) degree requires a minimum of two years of full-time study beyond the master's degree, but in most fields, considerably more time is necessary. For example, completion of the requirements for a doctorate in one of the natural sciences usually takes four to five years of study beyond the master's. In some institutions, highly qualified students may bypass the master's and enter a doctoral program with only a bachelor's degree, but this does not necessarily shorten the period of time required. Doctoral students attend advanced lecture courses and seminars, undergo extensive written and oral examinations and carry out research under professional guidance. Graduate study leading to a doctorate in most fields emphasizes original research presented in the form of a dissertation. Doctorates are also awarded in medicine (M.D.), education (Ed.D.), law (J.D.) and other specialized fields.

Research has become one of the chief functions of the graduate school. Universities carry on research in many fields and extend their services to businesses, government agencies and other nonacademic organizations.

Graduate study that prepares the student for professional practice is largely a function of the university, but there are also many independent schools of music, art, law, engineering, medicine, nursing and other professions. The professional associations and societies in each field establish standards at professional schools. Institutes of technology specialize in science and technology, and many of these schools have graduate programs. These should not be confused with technical institutes, which are generally two-year institutions.

Academic Year

The academic year ranges from 32 to 36 weeks in length. It usually begins in August or September and ends in early or late May. Some colleges and universities divide the academic year into two terms of about 15 to 18 weeks each, called semesters. Other schools divide the year into periods of 12 weeks each, called quarters. Students must be present during the three quarters that fall between August or September and May or June; the fourth quarter is the summer. Still other institutions divide the academic year into three equal trimesters. At all colleges and universities, there is a two to four week holiday beginning in mid-December, and many schools separate their terms with this holiday. Other institutions hold special short courses in the month of January and begin a new academic term in February. Most schools also have a one-week spring holiday in March or April and some have a one-week break in the fall, as well.

Credit System

In many postsecondary institutions outside the United States, certificates are awarded in the various areas of study after successful completion of national examinations. These examinations are quite comprehensive and are usually given once a year. Instead, the U.S. system

involves a process of continuous assessment based on a series of individual courses. Each course carries a certain number of credits that are awarded after the successful completion of that course.

A student's rate of advancement in meeting degree requirements is measured in course credits. These are often referred to as credit hours, semester hours (in the semester system), quarter hours (in the quarter system) or merely hours. In many cases, credit hours equal the number of hours spent in class per week. In other cases, credit hours reflect the workload or level of difficulty of a course. In most universities and colleges, the typical class is three or four credit hours. Two or three laboratory periods are usually considered equal to one credit hour. For the undergraduate student, the normal full-time program—called an academic load—is 12 to 16 credits a semester or quarter. For the graduate student it is nine to 12 credits. The two-year associate's degree generally requires 60 to 64 credit hours. The four-year baccalaureate degree requires between 120 and 136 credits; a normal master's degree, 30 to 36 beyond the bachelor's; and the doctorate, 90 beyond the bachelor's. Approximately 16 of the doctoral credits are usually awarded for the dissertation.

Registration

Admission to an institution authorizes a person to become a student at the institution, but it does not constitute official enrollment or registration. The process of enrolling or registering for a group of specific subjects or courses generally begins with a personal consultation with the student's academic advisor. A student selects a study program from a variety of courses and includes in it those that the major department requires. The student will not be permitted to enroll for credit in any course for which adequate preparation and prerequisites are lacking. The student fills out the required registration forms in order to be listed on the roll of each class or course that the advisor has approved. Usually, within the first week or two of a semester or quarter, changes in the program may be made if the student has the consent of the teacher and academic advisor, fills out the correct form, and presents it to the appropriate office of the institution. Thereafter, a student will be permitted to withdraw from courses only with the advisor's consent and by following the school's procedures. The student will receive a failing grade unless these procedures are followed. The registration process is repeated each semester or quarter as students enroll in a new group of courses.

Assessment

At most colleges and universities in the United States, a student's academic work is assessed with a letter grade. An "A" is considered superior; "B," above average; "C," average; "D," below average; "F," failure. Many institutions also employ the use of pluses and minuses to distinguish between a higher letter grade, "B+," and a lower one, "B-." The undergraduate student is expected to maintain a C average or better to remain in good academic standing. A student whose average drops below a C will be placed on probation,

usually for one term. A student whose grades do not improve in that time could receive either a temporary academic suspension or a permanent academic dismissal. Graduate students are expected to maintain a B average or better to remain in good academic standing. Some institutions use the letter "I" to denote incomplete work and allow the student an additional period of time (usually a semester or a year) to complete the course requirements before a final grade is entered. A few institutions use percentages rather than letter grades; under this system, 90 to 100 is usually equal to an A; 80 to 89, a B; 70 to 79, a C; 60 to 69, a D; and below 60, an F. Many schools also make use of a pass-fail system, either for all courses or for elective courses only. The student who completes a course satisfactorily receives a grade of "pass"; the student who does not, receives a grade of "fail."

Assignment of a grade for a student's work in a course is entirely the prerogative of the instructor, and it cannot be changed by anyone of higher authority in the institution. Some instructors prefer to grade students against an absolute standard that they alone have determined. Others choose to measure students against one another in a system known as "grading on the curve." This assumes that most students in a class would work at an average level of C, that there would be several B's and D's and a very few A's and F's to reflect the normal achievement curve. The system is thought to reduce the element of subjectivity in measurement. If a test or assignment is so difficult that most students do poorly—or alternatively, so easy that almost everyone completes it without error—the best will receive an A and the poorest an F, regardless of the absolute scores.

Overall academic achievement is measured by grade points. The most common system of numerical values for grades is A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, and E or F=0. A student's grade point average (G.P.A.)—or sometimes, quality point average (Q.P.A.)—is computed by dividing the total number of grade points (arrived at by multiplying the grade point for each course by the credit hours of each course and then adding the resulting numbers together) by the total number of credit hours of enrollment. For example, a student may earn an A in a three-credit course in English, a B in a four-credit course in biology, a C in a three-credit course in statistics, and a B in a three-credit course in history. The average is determined as follows:

Course	*Grade*	*Credits*		*Grade Points*
English	A=4	x 3	=	12
Biology	B=3	x 4	=	12
Statistics	C=2	x 3	=	6
History	B=3	x 3	=	9
		13		39 ÷ 13 = 3.0 *G.P.A.*

Colleges and universities regularly record the progress of each student, and in most institutions, the grades that indicate the quality of classroom work are the most important part of the record. Access to a student's records is limited, and there are federal laws to protect the student's privacy. Records are maintained in the office of the institution's registrar.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The way a course is taught is often the result of the preference of the instructor. However, the course content, the academic level of the students and the number of students enrolled in the class are also determinants of the method by which the material is presented.

The lecture-only method, in which an instructor relates the material to a silent but note-taking group of students for the entire class session, is now relatively rare. It has developed into the lecture-discussion style in which the instructor pauses frequently in his or her presentation of the course material so that the students may comment on or question that portion of the material. Teachers frequently assign certain topics for discussion in a class period, and the actual lecturing is reduced to a minimum. In large universities, where undergraduate classes tend to have high enrollments and discussion is not feasible, students attend lectures for part of the assigned time and are then divided into small groups for discussion led by a graduate student assistant. In science courses, laboratory sessions supplement lectures.

The seminar method is used extensively at the graduate level and frequently employed in advanced undergraduate courses. The method itself limits the large number of students in a class, and its success is questionable in classes of more than 12 to 15 students. In seminar courses, the material is studied in greater depth, students are usually required to do research and prepare papers and the discussion time is given to an analysis of student and scholarly theory and opinion.

Independent study contains elements of the European tutorial style. It is a one-on-one method in which a single student, in consultation with a professor, takes on the independent investigation of an academic subject for a specified number of credit hours. Independent study usually involves more reading and research than would be required in a scheduled course.

Practical training refers to all instruction or supervision given to a student who is engaged in an apprentice-like period of learning outside the college or university. It includes clinical practice for those in the health or allied health fields, practice teaching for those in the field of education and many other on-the-job experiences. Although this type of experience is not always a part of the college curriculum, it is usually mandated in the case of students who plan to take examinations for professional licensure after graduation.

Whatever the method, students are expected to appear regularly for class and to take an active role in discussion, to spend up to two hours in preparatory reading for each class hour, and to complete research papers or other written assignments by given deadline dates. Small examinations, or “quizzes,” may be given on a regular basis throughout the semester or quarter. More comprehensive examinations are given at the middle and end of the term. The quality of work is measured by the results of the examinations, papers and laboratory reports the student has written and class participa-

tion. The professor then assigns a grade at the end of each term for each student registered in the class and reports it to the institution's registrar.

Classroom Culture

Visitors from abroad are surprised by the degree of informality exhibited by both faculty and students in the U.S. classroom. Students usually dress informally for class. Professors address students by their first names, and the reverse is sometimes true if the two are not far apart in age. It is best, however, to use the formal address in new situations. Students may sometimes eat in the classroom, and it is not unusual for students to arrive late or depart early from class, seemingly without the professor taking notice. Some discussions begun in the classroom will continue after class at a meeting in the professor's office or over coffee.

Visiting scholars frequently comment that the student-centered classroom they observe in the U.S. is quite different from the classroom culture they are used to at home. Most notable is the questioning spirit that permeates the classroom. From their earliest school years, children are taught to speak up when they do not understand what the teacher is saying—or even when they hold a different opinion. By the time they reach university age, the habit is firmly entrenched, and many U.S. professors encourage active debate in the classroom. While students show respect for their teachers, they take it for granted that respect will be returned. In fact, because of the high cost of postsecondary education today, college and university students view themselves as consumers with the right to demand that a professor be competent in the subject matter, well prepared and on time for each class, clear in explaining the grading policies and fair in applying these policies. This view has contributed to the proliferation of student course evaluations discussed further on page 58.

Extracurricular Life

With the exception of some urban institutions that cater largely to part-time, older students, U.S. campuses, whether in the city or in rural areas, resemble small, independent communities. The formal coursework is only one part of the college experience—extracurricular life is equally significant. In addition to the university authority structure, there is usually a student government that monitors student concerns and oversees a full range of activities. Sports, both intercollegiate and intramural, have major importance, and there are student associations focusing on everything from poetry to politics, a campus newspaper published by students, and concerts and theatrical events featuring students and outside artists. Many campuses have "Greek" organizations known as fraternities and sororities, which are usually segregated by gender. Most of these organizations serve social functions—some have a service or an academic orientation. Membership in these organizations is usually selective based on criteria that vary by organization. Students also involve themselves in concerns of the broader community through service to the needy, the hospitalized, preschoolers, youth groups and the elderly. Finally, much of the students' social life revolves around the campus, with

formal dances, parties organized by the various clubs and spontaneous gatherings in the dormitories.

In many cases, one of the dormitories has been designated an "international house," and an effort is made to pair U.S. students and students from abroad as roommates. These dormitories typically have a full schedule of internationally oriented activities—lectures, discussions, concerts and social events. In several major U.S. cities, the international house is an independent institution serving both resident and nonresident students and scholars but is not associated with one particular college or university.

At institutions with substantial numbers of students from abroad, there is usually an international student association that sponsors activities and provides peer support for young newcomers.

Finally, there are programs designed to teach English as a second language to students, visiting scholars and their families. Such programs are common at institutions with large international enrollments, but where they do not exist on campus, there is often a collaborative arrangement with a neighboring academic institution.

Campus Services for International Visitors

Most U.S. campuses have an official person who serves as foreign student advisor. At larger institutions, he or she may be part of an international office headed by a dean who is responsible for overseas study programs, faculty exchanges, technical assistance projects abroad, international studies in the curriculum and visiting scholars and students. The advisor's role is to offer guidance to students from abroad with respect to both personal and academic problems. He or she is also the liaison between the international visitor and the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) and the Internal Revenue Service (IRS). The office is also the focus of many campus events with an international flavor. For example, there might be a festival featuring one part of the world and including cultural and social events or a special dinner at one of the residence halls with food prepared by students of one nationality or another. At many institutions, visiting scholars are welcome to take part in these activities and to use other services the advisor offers. Upon arrival at your institution, you are urged to contact the office of the advisor to inquire about programs and services.

Note: A glossary of terms commonly used on U.S. campuses is included as an appendix to this handbook.

Sources. Parts of this chapter have been reprinted and adapted, with permission, from: *A Brief Guide to U.S. Higher Education.* American Council on Education, 2001.

Statistics provided by: *The 2001-2 Almanac.* The Chronicle of Higher Education. http://chronicle.com/free/almanac/2001/. Accessed May 31, 2002.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHING AT THE UNIVERSITY

THE ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT

Most of you will be affiliated with a college or university department. The department is the most prevalent form of organization in a U.S. academic institution and is generally formed on the basis of an academic discipline such as philosophy, history or music. Martin Trow, a U.S. sociologist concerned with the organization and development of higher education, writes that the U.S. academic department developed in the period 1870–1900, a product of the emergence of graduate education and the rise of the research oriented university in this country. The functions of a department include undergraduate instruction, research, recruitment, promotion of academic staff members and, at the university level, graduate education as well.

The structure of an academic department fits no one model. Some departments in small liberal arts colleges with 1,200 students may consist of three or four faculty members and may join several different fields under one academic umbrella—for instance, a department of sociology, anthropology and social work. Other departments, in large public or private universities enrolling 40,000 students, may have 80 faculty members (instructors, lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and full professors), as well as graduate teaching and research assistants, all lecturing in one academic discipline. In large universities, the individual subspecialties of a particular discipline will sometimes form independent departments such as departments of educational psychology, applied mathematics or marine biology. Alternatively, broader interdisciplinary areas may become the focus of a department, such as departments of urban studies, women's studies or African American studies.

The administration of a department, like its structure, follows no set standard. In some institutions, the chair (sometimes known as chairperson or chairman) is appointed by the president of the college or university in consultation with the dean of the faculty and/or the provost for an indefinite or specified period of time. In others, their colleagues elect the chair for a term varying from two to four years. In yet other instances, the chairmanship is a rotating position that each permanent (or tenured) member of the faculty can expect to hold at some time (or, indeed, several times) during his or her career in the institution. In departments with large student enrollments (and at institutions simply attempting to divide the administrative burden), two faculty members may serve as co-chairs, an assistant may share the department chairmanship, or a deputy chair may be named to perform some tasks. In very large departments, an executive committee of departmental faculty may act on behalf of the department's faculty.

Responsibilities of the chair include determining teaching assignments (in consultation with faculty, designating the specific courses to be taught and their meeting times); negotiating, monitoring and allocating the department budget—which includes determination of faculty salaries, distribution of funds for research and travel to conferences; and coordinating faculty recruitment. The chair also serves as intermediary between

the department and a variety of academic administrators, including the dean of students, dean of the faculty, dean of the graduate school, vice president of academic affairs, provost and president.

Upon your arrival on campus, you may want to meet with your department chair and let him or her know of your academic plans and interests. Departments will usually have a secretary and/or an administrative assistant (sometimes several depending on size and resources). At some institutions, departments will have additional support staff such as a business manager and work-study students. Consult with the chair to find out what departmental resources are available to you.

Since computers are commonplace in most university departments, most university professors handle their own correspondence and type their own papers. Correspondence with other faculty and with students by e-mail through the Internet is routine. You should be prepared to rely on this technology. Placement at a university, however, does not guarantee that a computer will be made available for your personal use. You may want to discuss computer availability and setting up an e-mail account with your faculty associate prior to your arrival. Many universities will have student computer centers where you can use the computer, or they may be able to provide information on where you can either purchase or rent one. Any computer fees or purchases will be your responsibility.

Departmental affairs are generally a collective endeavor, with faculty members (both tenured and nontenured) participating in committees to help administer the unit. Thus, faculty serves on departmental curriculum committees (proposing new courses, evaluating syllabi presented by colleagues and students for new courses and establishing degree requirements), faculty development committees (organizing seminars and workshops for faculty both within the department and the broader academic community), search committees (for hiring new faculty members) and tenure review committees. Departments will usually hold monthly meetings during which departmental business is discussed and various committees report to the faculty as a whole. Many decisions affecting departmental affairs will be reached through consensus with the faculty participating directly in the process by voting as a group on issues of concern.

If possible, you should certainly attend your general departmental meetings. They will provide you with an invaluable insight into the organization and structure of U.S. academic life. If you are interested in attending a departmental meeting, you should tell your department chair and ask for his or her approval. Generally, Fulbright scholars are not asked to serve on departmental committees. However, if you are interested in doing so, consult with your department chair.

Instead of a department, you may find yourselves based in a division such as the humanities, social sciences or natural sciences. Under this organizational pattern, faculty members trained in different disciplines are placed together with their academic colleagues who are humanists, social scientists or natural scientists. Or

you may be located at an institute or research center with geographic or issue-oriented focus whose membership ranges across the sciences, social sciences and humanities. You may also work in a department based not on disciplines but on such problem areas as man in the environment, modernization, humanism and cultural change. In such frameworks, your colleagues will come from a variety of disciplinary backgrounds across the academic spectrum. Over the past two decades, there has been much discussion and a fair degree of experimentation in the organization of U.S. colleges and universities. You may well find your institution in the midst of such explorations during your stay as a Fulbright scholar.

In some institutions, you will find college- or university-wide governing bodies on which some of your faculty colleagues serve. These may range from the board of trustees of the institution and the university faculty senate to policy review councils and committees on campus life, long-range planning and alumni relations. You may find such meetings interesting and should ask the presiding officer if it would be possible to attend as an observer.

STUDENTS AND TEACHING

Are students fundamentally the same around the world? You will have some definite views about this at the conclusion of your stay in the United States, but to assist you in coping with some of the more distinctive traits of U.S. students, the observations in the following sections may be helpful.

U.S. college students generally like to have a sense of the overall structure and requirements of each course at its inception. A written outline of the topics to be covered, the readings assigned for the course, the specific dates assignments are due and the scheduling of mid-term and other major examinations are all important in providing guidelines and a sense of orientation to students. It will be helpful to the students and useful to you when grading time arrives to specify at the beginning of the course the criteria by which you will determine grades. You may wish to allocate a certain percentage of the grade for class participation, another percentage for quizzes, and other percentages for the mid-term, final paper and final exam. You should consult with your colleagues and the department chairman to gain a sense of the customary weighting of various criteria in determining grades at your institution. You may also want to know your colleagues' general academic expectations of students taking courses in the department. You should also inquire about departmental or college policy toward "incompletes"—designations given to courses for which students have not been able to complete all required work within an academic term. It is standard practice in the U.S. to provide students with a syllabus at the beginning of the term that details most of all of these topics and expectations.

In comparison with students back home, you may find U.S. students intensely preoccupied with grades. In the highly competitive U.S. academic environment, undergraduates concerned with gaining a place in a prestigious graduate program or in law, business or medical school frequently feel pressured to attain the highest

possible grades. Those students entering the job market directly after college often feel that a high grade point average and a top rank in class are critical to their getting a "good" job.

As a result of this orientation toward grades, you may find students focusing a considerable amount of attention on the nature of their exams and the specific information on which they will be tested. You may find students questioning the grades you have given them on exams and papers and as their final course grade. A common response by U.S. faculty to such questions is a firm explanation of grading criteria.

As grades are such a highly charged issue, many students are strongly concerned that information about grades be private and held in confidence. U.S. students do not want their grades on exams and papers read out publicly or their academic status in class a matter of public knowledge. Indeed, some departments will post final grades on a bulletin board with the students identified only by Social Security number.

In general, class sessions are expected to begin on time. You can expect students to hand in assignments on the day requested; check with your department to learn whether your colleagues permit submission of late papers and what, if any, penalties may be incurred. You should ascertain departmental policy on examinations missed by students and class cancellations by instructors. Students like to have papers, quizzes and other written assignments returned with grades and comments by their professor. This criticism is particularly valuable in helping them assess their understanding of the course material and the areas in which they need to show improvement.

Students are expected to attend classes regularly. If you find a student to be chronically absent, you may wish to discuss the matter with him or her and, if this behavior continues, to lower the student's grade. Here again, your department's policy will furnish a valuable guideline.

As an integral part of teaching responsibilities, U.S. faculty members are expected to hold office hours for meeting with students. Check with your chair for the suggested number of office hours for your courses. Faculty members regularly allot two to three hours a week for office hours—sometimes scheduling them all on one day (for example, Wednesday afternoon from 2 p.m. to 4 p.m.) or on two or three different days for an hour each (for example, Monday, Wednesday and Friday from 10 a.m. to 11 a.m.). You may wish to indicate your office hours on your course outline or syllabus and on your office door. Many faculty members also provide students with their office telephone number so students can contact them should they have any questions about assignments or wish to make appointments. You may prefer to hold your office hours as informal sessions, as many U.S. academics do, where a prior appointment is not necessary; or, you may feel more comfortable with students making a specific appointment with you to begin and end at a particular time. Some professors put sign-up sheets for office hour appointments on their office doors, and

students write their names next to particular half-hour or 15-minute time slots. Again, you may wish to explore local practices at your institution.

The Classroom Environment

While U.S. institutions of higher education certainly vary in their particular environments, mix of students, faculty, history and traditions, students in these very diverse settings generally tend to behave in an informal manner among themselves and in encounters with academic faculty and administration. In language, demeanor and dress, undergraduates, in particular, will be colloquial, familiar and informal. They will call each other by their first names and feel most comfortable if faculty members do the same. Young men and women, as well as older students, will generally appear in class in shorts, slacks, jeans, t-shirts and sweaters most of the year. Only on formal occasions will most undergraduates appear in suits or dresses. This attire does not indicate a devaluing of the educational experience; rather, it expresses a desire to approach learning in a comfortable, easygoing manner.

Students will treat faculty with respect but not with any special deference. Students may call you "Professor," "Dr.," "Mr.," "Ms.," "Mrs." or "Miss" or simply speak to you without using any title at all. U.S. students are encouraged from elementary school to consider the classroom a lively place, a site for dialogue with the teacher and sometimes for debate. Students will occasionally challenge what professors say—some may be particularly insightful and some may be more argumentative than enlightened. It is a generally accepted convention of the U.S. classroom for students to interrupt an instructor's presentation with a question or comment. You should not construe a raised hand during your lectures as a sign of disrespect or an occasional comment by a student without formal permission to speak as a mark of great rudeness. You can certainly make it clear that you would prefer to entertain questions at the conclusion of your prepared remarks; however, you may well find students persisting in raising their hands to ask questions.

However, not all classrooms are dynamic. To engage students who may be somewhat passive, you may wish to provoke discussion with pointed questions, controversial statements and structured debates.

In many U.S. academic institutions, particularly small colleges sponsored by religious denominations, students share relatively similar geographic, social and economic backgrounds. In other institutions of higher learning, however, you will find a wide diversity of backgrounds. During your stay in the United States, you are more than likely to meet a variety of foreign students, as this country is host to the largest number of foreign students in the world.

Do not assume that your undergraduate students will all be between the ages of 18 and 22—the once traditional ages of college attendance. You may encounter a number of students who are older because many do not enter college directly after secondary school but wait a year or two. Others take time out in the middle of their

college experience to join the work force for a few years before returning to complete their degree requirements, while still others hold jobs while attending college and therefore may take classes over a longer period of time. The most important factor changing the traditional age for both undergraduate and graduate students is the increasing number of adults who return to school or even begin their studies after the age of 25. You may find students in their mid-to-late twenties sitting in your classroom as well as middle-aged and retired men and women enrolled as full-time students seeking degrees they always coveted, and mid-career professionals developing new career directions or embarking on new avenues of personal growth and intellectual exploration. These older students will enhance your classroom in many ways and will certainly keep you attentive intellectually.

This great variety of student backgrounds will undoubtedly make your class a more interesting one. It will also mean that you will be unable to assume a base of common knowledge among the group. They probably will not all have read the same "great books;" they will not all have discussed the same "great ideas;" and they will not all be familiar with the same "classical" references to the great traditions in a number of fields. You should begin any introductory course, especially with undergraduates, assuming no prior knowledge of fundamentals in your field and then adjust your references as you discover the actual level of student knowledge. You should be able to assume a certain familiarity with the literature of the field if you teach a course with a prerequisite course mandated. But to determine exactly what materials were covered, you should check with your departmental colleagues.

Your students may well be heterogeneous by grade levels, as well as by the other characteristics already mentioned. U.S. classrooms may have precocious freshmen enrolled alongside juniors and seniors in upper-level classes or beginning graduate students in introductory survey courses. You may wish to spend some of your opening class session exploring student backgrounds and levels of knowledge, either through class discussion or by having students complete brief personal biographies.

A growing number of U.S. academic institutions mandate student evaluations of every faculty member and include the results in the professor's academic file. In other institutions, such evaluations are not part of the formal departmental evaluation structure but have acquired a venerable informal tradition of their own. Compilations of such evaluations are sometimes sold at the college bookstore or made available to the general university community through a special edition of the campus newspaper. At the end of your course, you may wish to emulate some of your U.S. colleagues and have your students complete a course evaluation form in which they evaluate your course according to a number of components (clarity of the lectures, faculty preparation, value of reading assignments). Some faculty members choose to use predesigned evaluation forms; others employ their own form or one prepared by the department. As a visitor in your department, you will probably not be required to undertake such an

evaluation. You may, however, find the student comments of interest.

Teaching Styles

While there is not a single U.S. teaching style, there are a variety of approaches to teaching that together may constitute a U.S. teaching approach that is increasingly learner-oriented, learner-involved. While the traditional tightly organized, well prepared, finely honed and eloquently delivered professional lecture still has an important place in contemporary academic practice, it has been joined by a variety of other methods of communicating information that develop a range of student abilities.

At a large university where one faculty member (often a distinguished senior professor) lectures to a student audience sometimes numbering in the hundreds, students are assigned to small discussion groups to meet with other instructors to discuss the lecture. Sometimes the senior professor may lead one of these groups—known as a recitation section—while other sections are directed by teaching assistants who are graduate students. In more manageable settings, even in courses containing nearly a hundred students, instructors will invite discussion, questions and comments from students.

In many courses, U.S. faculty tries to build student presentations into the course. These presentations may take the form of book reviews and critiques, oral presentations of a research assignment or term paper, case-study analyses, student debates, panel discussions or role-playing simulations. To introduce new perspectives into their courses, faculty members invite experts or practitioners to discuss particular approaches to issues and then have students question the guest speakers.

Team teaching, an approach where two faculty members from different disciplines or representing two diverse traditions within one discipline jointly teach one course, has gained popularity recently. In such a co-teaching effort, both faculty members are present for the entire course and conduct dialogue between themselves and with their students on the course material. In other instances, a course may be divided into different components or modules with several different faculty members individually teaching a specific module.

At some institutions, student "field experiences"—experiences outside the classroom in a government office, private business, professional setting (physician's office, architectural firm) or cultural institution (museum, symphony orchestra)—are part of a course. As a term project, the student may serve as a participant-observer, volunteer, evaluator, counselor, teacher or intern in a particular field setting. The student can thus contribute directly in the field context and in the classroom with observations, hypotheses and insights generated by his or her experience. This "experiential" dimension in U.S. education is one that you may hear about during your stay in the United States and may wish to discuss further with your colleagues.

Another technique increasingly employed to enhance course content is the use of audiovisual materials. Documentary films from the United States and abroad, commercial films of particular significance and audio and videotapes of important radio and television programs have all become part of course presentations. Indeed, at a growing number of institutions, courses are given to students and faculty in the use of video equipment to enable them to produce their own materials for use in the classroom and/or for individual creative projects. Audiovisual resources are often housed in college or university media centers, which may be part of the university library system or affiliated with a department of education or speech and theater.

Your college or university may have a department or office of educational technology, or a media resource center within the library, where staff can provide guidance in the use of innovative technologies in education. Other services provided by such centers include the use of computer, television, and video equipment, as well as providing tutorials to students on how to use the technology programs and equipment available to them. When visiting your campus library, be sure to find out what programs and services are available to you and your students.

Other educational tools increasingly used both in and out of the classroom are computer-aided instruction packages and learning modules. The Internet is playing an ever-greater role in many college and university classrooms, and many American college students are required to take a basic computing class in order to graduate. Most campus libraries now have "computer classrooms" that professors can reserve for a class period so students may learn to use various technology programs with the professor at hand. These "classrooms" are hooked up to highly specialized academic databases and journals, covering a wide range of subjects, which students otherwise may not have access to and can be particularly useful for research purposes. Some institutions also use technology to allow students to participate in discussion groups or post assignments between class sessions virtually through the Internet.

Campus and Community Life

Whether you are at a large, urban university or a small, rural college, you are likely to find U.S. campus life lively and innovative. Student groups abound in areas ranging from the pre-professional (pre-med and pre-law societies), discipline-focused (geology society, history club), and geographically and culturally centered (the German culture club, the Spanish language and culture association) to the issue-oriented (third world development, ecology and conservation, human rights). Foreign student organizations are often found on larger campuses (the Nigerian Students' League, the Chinese Students' Alliance).

You will also find service and action-oriented groups (providing day care services in the inner city, literacy tutoring, feeding the homeless, building housing, assistance to the physically handicapped), organizations fostering the arts (choral society, opera group, sym-

phony orchestra, drama guild) and a wide variety of student athletic groups (swimming team, track and field clubs, basketball and football teams). Most universities will also have clubs and student groups providing religious fellowship for Christians, Jews, Muslims and other religions, and many institutions have chapels available to students for worship. Students, or the college itself, may sponsor lecture series, dance or drama events and musical evenings with off-campus guests and outside performing arts groups. An Office of Student Life oversees this wide range of student activities, which is responsible to a dean of students. Your institution may also have a student union or student center where many student organizations and recreational facilities are located. Many of your colleagues will be involved with these student groups as advisors, guest lecturers or participants. You may find such involvement a fine way to learn more about your students and become more deeply immersed in campus life. Your college or university's student newspaper is an excellent source of information on campus-wide activities as are the many announcements posted on bulletin boards throughout the campus.

Many campus activities will be open to the broader community. Equally, many community activities will be open to college faculty and students; indeed, local churches and synagogues as well as civic and fraternal groups may actively seek your participation. You may be asked to give a lecture on current developments in your country or to discuss aspects of your academic specialty before such local groups. You may want to get a listing of your community's voluntary associations (which may also be branches of large national organizations), such as the Rotary Club, the League of Women Voters, the Girl or Boy Scouts, the 4-H Club and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Inform them of your presence in the area and request that they put you on their mailing lists for local events. You may wish to involve your family in activities organized by these groups and participate yourself.

Inform your colleagues of your interests—whether they are in sports, the arts or civic issues—and they will be able to suggest local organizations in which you can participate. You should also ask whether there is an international visitors' center in your community or any organization in your area that provides assistance and hospitality to foreign visitors. The foreign student advisor or the international office on your campus should be able to assist you in such a quest.

Lastly, some colleges and universities organize English as a second language programs for foreign students and instructors. Such services generally include tutoring by subject, help with writing and help developing good study habits and time management skills. You should consult with your colleagues or International Office to learn what services are available at your institution.

INTERNATIONAL POSTSCRIPT

Student and community awareness of your country, its interests and concerns may ebb and flow with U.S. media coverage of dramatic events or crises occurring

there. U.S. students and faculty vary considerably in knowledge, interest and appreciation of foreign cultures and experiences. You may meet returned Peace Corps volunteers, participants in overseas exchange programs, consultants on international development projects, businessmen and women, children of diplomats and clergy with extraordinary understanding and insight into other cultures. You will, however, also find many students, community people and some faculty members who have never been outside the United States or traveled beyond their particular state or region. Some of these people may see your home country and its traditions in two dimensions only; they will be the victims of stereotypes and clichés. You will then have the opportunity to give these people a vivid sense of another reality, a way of approaching the world and its manifold complexity through other lenses, other perspectives.

You may be able to provide your U.S. students, colleagues and community acquaintances with a more profound view of your country through slide or film presentations and discussions. Perhaps you can even include your family and friends from home. You may wish to explore with your U.S. contacts the variety within your culture, the range of opinion and the issues under current debate. Students and colleagues may find a discussion of academic culture in your country to be of particular interest. How does the structure of higher education back home compare with what you have seen of U.S. academic life? What do students in your country expect from a college experience and how do they organize their lives during their university years? What role do faculty members play in local and national life? Providing students and colleagues with examples parallel to their current experiences may help to solidify realities in other worlds and underscore the many correct ways of organizing human experience.

Sources. Trow, Martin. "Departments As Context for Teaching and Learning," in Dean F. McHenry and Associates, *Academic Departments.* Jossey-Bass, 1977.

Chapter 6: Using the University Library and Archives

Organization of Libraries

As part of your orientation to academic resources at your institution, you should arrange for a tour of your college or university library. Many institutions will have a variety of libraries located at different sites on campus. There may be a separate library for undergraduates, special libraries for science or music or the visual arts, a major research library and small departmental libraries. Many universities are members of a consortium that share library privileges.

Open Stacks and Circulation of Books. U.S. libraries may seem quite different from libraries in your home country. Most libraries, public and private, have an open stack system where you are free to browse the shelves and choose your own books. Most books circulate for a period of approximately two weeks to a semester. This means that if you have a library card, you can check the books out at the circulation desk near the entrance and take them home to read for a specific amount of time. You will have to pay a fine if you do not return the books on time. You should request a library card as soon as possible. Often, this card must be presented to enter the library.

Orientation Tours and Bibliographic Instruction Programs. Early in the semester, most university libraries give orientation tours for students. You should definitely take such a tour if it is offered. Sometimes libraries provide bibliographic instruction programs or lectures. These are extremely useful and will save you much time in conducting your research. Even if you do not take a class or a tour, be sure to pick up any handouts or maps of the library so you can learn how your library is organized and what services are available to you.

Classification Systems. U.S. libraries use two main systems for organizing their collections. Most university libraries use the Library of Congress Classification System, but some smaller college libraries and all public libraries use the Dewey Decimal System. In both systems, books are shelved by subject groups according to their call number and then alphabetically by the author's name. The call number is a combination of the classification number and a letter or number representing the author. The call number appears on the spine of the book as well as in the library catalog. You will need to understand the system used in your library to locate the books on the shelves.

Online and Card Catalogs. Another difference between U.S. libraries and libraries in many other countries is their reliance on technology. Most U.S. university libraries have computerized catalogs of their holdings. Many still have card catalogs, as well. Be sure to find out if the card catalog is up to date. Frequently, books cataloged after a certain date are included only in the online catalog, while in a few libraries books cataloged before a certain point are found only in the card catalog. You may need to know how to use both catalog systems. The card catalog is almost always organized dictionary style with cards for author, title and subject filed alphabetically word-by-word (not letter-by-letter). If the library uses the

Library of Congress Classification System, the subject headings used will be based on the list that the Library produces. It is helpful to look in the big red books titled *Library of Congress Subject Headings* (usually found near the catalog) to get an idea of how to locate your topic.

It is important to read the library's instructions for use of the online catalog since there are many different systems. It is appropriate to ask a librarian for assistance until you are comfortable using the system on your own.

Reference Desk. Another important aspect of U.S. libraries is their service-oriented feature. You should feel free to ask librarians for help. It is their job to answer reference questions, and they will not think less of you for asking for assistance, no matter how minor your question may seem. In fact, they will often ask if you need help. For some research topics, you may wish to consult a librarian who specializes in your discipline or language. Most large university libraries have subject specialists and geographic specialists. You can usually find a librarian at the reference desk, which is near the card catalog or computers that contain the online catalog. The reference area will also include a large number of noncirculating (which means that you cannot take them out of the library) reference books such as encyclopedias, directories, dictionaries, atlases, indexes, abstracts, bibliographies and other finding aids.

Most reference areas have electronic databases (sometimes as part of the online catalog) and CD-ROMs for use in locating journal articles and other recent publications. CD-ROMs are compact disks similar to recordings, but they can hold an entire encyclopedia worth of digitized text and images. Some databases require a librarian to do an electronic search for you, but many are set up at computers for you to use on your own or can be accessed online. They have instructions for users and can save a great deal of time. Some particularly useful indexes found in online or CD-ROM form are ERIC (for education), MLA (for literature), ABI/Inform (for business and economics),

Library of Congress Classification

A	General Works–Polygraphy
B	Philosophy–Religion
C	History–Auxiliary Sciences
D	History and Topography (except U.S.)
E–F	America
G	Geography–Anthropology
H	Social Sciences
J	Political Science
K	Law
L	Education
M	Music
N	Fine Arts
P	Language and Literature
Q	Science
R	Medicine
S	Agriculture–Plant and Animal Husbandry
T	Technology
V	Naval Science
Z	Bibliography and Library Science

DEWEY DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION	
000	General Works
100	Philosophy
200	Religion
300	Social Sciences
400	Language
500	Pure Science
600	Technology
700	The Arts
800	Literature
900	History

AGRICOLA (for agriculture), Historical Abstracts, Social Sciences Index, MEDLINE (for medicine), Art Index, Humanities Index, Sociological Abstracts, Legaltrac (for law), Art and Humanities Citation Index, Public Affairs Information Service (also called PAIS– for political science), Engineering Index (also called Compendex), CA Search (for chemistry), BIOSIS (for biology), INSPEC (for physics), PSYCHINFO (for psychology), Books in Print, Newspaper Abstracts, Dissertation Abstracts and Magazine Index. By using an electronic database or CD-ROM version of an index, you can search numerous years of periodicals at one time. You can also look for the print version, if the database version is not available.

Serials and Other Special Materials. Most university libraries separate books from serials. Serials are periodicals such as newspapers, journals and magazines. They are kept in various formats: paper copies, bound copies, microform and microfiche. Some libraries have separate audiovisual sections for videotapes, microform, microfiche and audiotapes. Some also have special divisions for maps, music, manuscripts, prints, government documents and other special collections. Legal and medical works are usually kept in separate libraries.

Interlibrary Loans and Visits to Other Libraries. If your library does not contain a work you need for your research, you can usually request to borrow it from another library. To find out what the procedures are, ask for the interlibrary loan department of your library. If you need an article from a periodical your library does not subscribe to, you may be able to obtain a copy through a document delivery service. These services will fax a copy of an article to you for a fee. Ask your librarian if the library has an arrangement with a particular document delivery service.

You should also find out if your university is a member of a consortium of institutions that share library privileges. If so, you can usually use the libraries of other members of the consortium with the library card from your university.

Perhaps the easiest method to find out about another library's holdings is to view its catalog on the Internet. The Library of Congress (LOC) has an extensive Web site at http://www.loc.gov that includes the complete catalog of the LOC. In addition, there is a link from the LOC Web site to access hundreds of other university and public library catalogs throughout the U.S. and internationally.

If you plan to visit the LOC, you should be aware that researchers intending to use public reading rooms in the LOC are required to have reader identification cards issued by the LOC. The cards are free, and can be obtained by presenting a valid driver's license, state issued identification card or passport and completing a simple self-registration process. Also note that unlike most U.S. libraries, it is not possible to remove books from the LOC; rather, you must submit a request for a book from a librarian and it will be brought to you to be read in the library.

Archives

Archives contain documents and papers of historic record, which usually relate to an individual, family, institution, organization or government. Some archives are found within libraries while others are completely separate. Archivists are historians with special training who can assist you with your research and show you the rules and organization of their archive. Archive materials do not leave the premises. There are usually restrictions on what you can carry into the archive. Sometimes you are only permitted to bring pencils and papers, and you are not allowed to photocopy materials. Most archives do not have a catalog. You can sometimes consult an inventory of their holdings, which is much less detailed than a catalog. It is preferable to contact the archive before your visit to inform them of your needs. You may need to make a special application to use an archive.

If you are new to archival research, you may find, "Using Archives: A Practical Guide for Beginners" a useful tool to guide you in your research. It is available online at http://www.archives.ca/04/0416_e.html.

To locate archival collections in the United States, consult Internet resources such as "Repositories of Primary Resources" compiled by the University of Idaho and available online at: http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/other.Repositories.html. You may find that state and local archives are excellent resources. Depending on your research, you may also want to investigate the holdings of the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA), which preserves the records of the U.S. government. In addition to its main research buildings in Washington, D.C., and College Park, Maryland, NARA also administers several regional archives and presidential libraries around the country and posts many of its holdings to its Web site at http://www.nara.org.

SUGGESTED READINGS ABOUT THE UNITED STATES

The publications listed below, which are available in many U.S. educational advising centers abroad, will help you gain a greater understanding of Americans and their culture.

Althen, Gary. *American Ways: A Guide for Foreigners in the United States.* Intercultural Press, 1988.

Bellah, Robert N., et. al. *Habits of the Heart: Individualism and Commitment in American Life*. Harper and Row, 1985.

Berman, Morris. *The Twilight of American Culture*. W.W. Norton & Company, 2001.

Crunden, Robert Morse. *A Brief History of American Culture*. Paragon Publishers, 1994.

Jason, Katherine, and Holly Posner. *Explorations in American Culture*. Heinle and Heinle, 1995.

Kammen, Michael. *American Culture, American Tastes: Social Change and the Twentieth Century*. Knopf, 1999

Kerber, Linda K.; Alice Kessler Harris; and Kathryn Kis Sklar, eds. *U.S. History as Women's History: New Feminist Essays.* University of North Carolina Press, 1995.

Kim, Eun Y. *The Yin and Yang of American Culture: A Paradox*. Intercultural Press, 2001.

Lanier, Alison. *Living in the U.S.A.* Intercultural Press, 1996.

Salzman, Jack; David Lionel Smith; and Cornel West, eds. *Encyclopedia of African American Culture and History.* MacMillan, 1996.

Schlosser, Eric. *Fast Food Nation*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 2001.

Steigerwald, David. *The Sixties and the End of Modern America.* St. Martin's, 1995.

Stewart, Edward C., and Milton Bennett. *American Cultural Patterns: A Cross-Cultural Perspective*. Intercultural Press, 1991.

Willett, Kempton; Jane S. Boster; and Jennifer A. Hartley. *Environmental Values in American Culture.* MIT Press, 1995.

You may also find the following online resources of interest:

"America's Story from America's Library" Library of Congress. http://www.americas-library.gov/cgi-bin/page.cgi

"Information USA" homepage. United States Department of State. http://usinfo.state.gov/usa/infousa

"Why do Americans Act Like That?" A guide to understand the U.S. culture and its values. Dr. Robert Kohls, Director of International Programs, San Francisco State University. http://www.uku.fi/~paganuzz/xcult/values/Amer_values.htm

SUGGESTED READINGS ABOUT U.S. ACADEMIC CULTURE

To help you place your own Fulbright scholarly experience in the context of U.S. academic life as a whole, we have appended a short list of books that you may wish to consult.

Barzun, Jacques. *The American University: How It Runs, Where It is Going.* The University of Chicago Press, 1993.

Blau, Peter Michael. *The Organization of Academic Work*. 2nd ed. Transaction Publishers, 1994.

Bok, Derek. *Beyond the Ivory Tower: Social Responsibilities of the Modern University.* Harvard University Press, 1982.

Boyer, Ernest. *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*. Jossey-Bass, 1997.

Bromwich, David. *Politics by Other Means: Higher Education and Group Thinking.* Yale University Press, 1992.

Duderstadt, James J. *A University for the 21st Century.* University of Michigan Press, 2000.

Glassick, Charles E.; Mary Taylor Huber and Gene I. Maeroff. *Scholarship Assessed : Evaluation of the Professoriate* (Special Report (An Ernest Boyer Project of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching)). Jossey-Bass, 1997.

Kimball, Bruce. *Tenured Radicals: How Politics Has Corrupted Our Higher Education.* Harper and Row, 1990

Lawton, Denis. *Education and Politics in the 1990s: Conflict or Consensus?* Falmer Press, 1992.

Levine, Arthur. *Higher Learning in America, 1980-2000.* Johns Hopkins University Press, 1994.

Poch, Robert K. *Academic Freedom in American Higher Education: Rights, Responsibilities, and Limitations.* George Washington University, 1993.

Richardson, Richard C. *Achieving Quality and Diversity: Universities in a Multicultural Society.* American Council on Education, 1991.

Rossovsky, Henry. *The University: An Owner's Manual.* Norton, 1990.

Also see *The Chronicle of Higher Education,* published weekly throughout most of the year, for up-to-the-minute views of U.S. higher education and news concerning higher education in other countries. *The Chronicle* is published in Washington, D.C. Your college or university library probably holds a subscription.

APPENDIX

Glossary of Terms Commonly Used on Campus

A.A.: Associate of Arts degree, awarded upon completion of a two-year, liberal arts program, generally with emphasis on the humanities or social sciences.

A.A.S.: Associate of Applied Science degree, awarded upon completion of a two-year program, generally in a commercial or technical field of study.

A.B.D.: "All but Degree" or "All but Dissertation," an informal title for someone who has completed all Ph.D. requirements except the dissertation.

Academic: A member of the faculty at a university-level institution. Often used as an adjective to describe something related to higher education.

Academic Year: Period of instruction from the beginning of the school year in September to the end in May; usually divided into terms; may be two semesters, three quarters, or three trimesters.

Accreditation: Education in the United States is not controlled by a national ministry. An educational institution as a whole or one of its academic programs is certified as meeting the standards set by a particular association. Colleges and universities may be accredited by six regional and/or 40 professional accrediting bodies. Examples: Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, American Medical Association.

Adjunct Faculty: Faculty members who teach part-time for a department without appointments in that department's regular faculty.

Advisee: A student receiving advice, information and assistance in planning and carrying out educational plans.

Advisor: A member of the college or university staff who is assigned to assist students with educational planning.

Alumni: People who have attended or graduated from a school, college or university (male- **alumnus**; female- **alumna**). Often **alum** is used as a catchphrase term.

A.S.: Associate of Science degree, awarded upon completion of a two-year, liberal arts program with emphasis on the natural sciences.

Assignment: Work required by a professor to be completed outside of class and due by a specific date; also called homework.

Assistantship: A position in teaching, administration or research, usually for graduate students; involves 10 to 20 hours of work per week and part-time graduate study.

Audit: To take a class without receiving a grade or any credit.

B.A.: Bachelor of Arts (or baccalaureate) degree, awarded upon completion of a four-year (occasionally five) program of study, generally with emphasis on the humanities or social sciences.

B.S.: Bachelor of Science (or baccalaureate) degree, awarded upon completion of a four-year (occasionally five) program of study, generally with emphasis on the natural or applied sciences.

Blue Book: Essay tests are often written in light blue exam books that can be bought at campus bookstores.

Board of Trustees: The governing body of a university, composed of prominent citizens; occasionally known as the Board of Regents.

Break: A period such as the winter holiday or the end of an academic term when university classes stop temporarily.

Bulletin: Same as Catalog.

Bursar: Office or person within the university administration to which all fees are paid; also called the Cashier.

Call Number: Code on every library book designating its subject matter.

Campus: The college/university grounds, usually characterized by park-like green spaces.

Card Catalog: Traditionally, a collection of index cards in the library listing books by author, title and subject. Access to collections in most major libraries is now through computerized databases.

Carrel: A small, enclosed desk in the library reserved by individuals doing research.

Cashier: Same as Bursar.

Catalog: The publication issued annually or biannually that gives information about a given school and lists the courses offered; sometimes called the "Register" or "Bulletin."

Certificate: A form of recognition for successfully completing a specified program of study, generally one or two years in length.

Chairperson: A professor who administers an academic department; also referred to as the Department Head.

Chancellor: Chief executive officer of an institution of higher education; also called the President.

Class: Referring to the year of study (first year–freshman, second year–sophomore, third year–junior, fourth year–senior); also refers to a group of people who meet with a professor on a scheduled basis.

College: Institution that offers undergraduate, bachelor's degree programs in liberal arts and sciences as well as first professional degrees; may be an independent college or part of a university; also a generic term referring to all education at the postsecondary level.

Commencement: The graduation ceremony; the event at which degrees are awarded.

Community College: Generally a public, two-year institution of higher learning that offers instruction to meet the needs of the local community.

Comprehensive Examination: A broad examination covering material in an entire field of study; typically, the examination at the end of a master's degree program.

Conditional Admission: Admission granted to students who do not meet all admission criteria; students may be placed on probation for a specific period of time until they demonstrate the ability to do acceptable work.

Consortium: When there are several colleges and universities within close proximity to one another, they often join in a consortium to share library resources and often courses and other cultural and educational opportunities with one another's students.

Continuing Education: An extension of study at the higher education level for post-high school or college students, usually those beyond traditional university age.

Co-op: A store originally organized and operated by students with the cooperation and approval of the school to sell books, school supplies, computers, clothing and other items useful to students. On many campuses, co-ops have developed into small department stores. Sometimes there are also food co-ops, which are student-operated supermarkets.

Cooperative Education: Substantial practical work experience related to the student's major field. It can be an educational plan that requires the student to alternate periods of full-time study with periods of full-time work, usually related to the major field.

Core Curriculum: A group of courses in varied subject areas, designated by a college as part of the requirements for a specified degree; same as Required Course.

Course: Usually refers to a specific class, for example, Quantitative Chemistry I.

Course Load: The number of credit hours a student carries in one term.

Course Number: The number given to identify a course, e.g., (Chem. 236) Chemistry I. Numbers 100–399 usually refer to undergraduate courses, and numbers above 400 indicate graduate courses.

Cram (slang): Intense study for a test at the last possible moment.

Credit: The quantitative measurement assigned to a course; the recognition given for successful completion of course work; usually defined by the number of hours spent in class per week; one credit hour is usually assigned for 50 minutes of class per week over a period of a semester, quarter, or trimester.

Cut Class (slang): To be absent from a class; skip class.

Dean: Senior academic officer of a college. A university may have several colleges, each headed by a dean.

Dean's List: List of undergraduate students who have earned above a certain grade point average for a given term.

Department: The faculty group, together with its supporting administrative personnel, that provides instruction in a given subject area.

Discipline: A field of study, for example, the discipline of chemistry.

Discussion Group: A group that meets with a professor or assistant to discuss lectures presented by the professor.

Dissertation: A formal, book length monograph presenting the results of original study and research that is submitted to fulfill the requirements for a doctoral degree.

Distance Learning: Education in which students take academic courses by accessing information and communicating with the instructor, sometimes asynchronously, over a computer network.

Distribution Requirement: Predetermined number of courses in specific subject areas required of students for completion of a degree program.

Dormitory (Dorm): Living facilities that are operated by the school or privately, including bedrooms, toilet, and bathroom; often no cooking is allowed. Also called a Residence Hall.

Drop or Add: To withdraw from a course or add a course before a specified date.

Drop Out: To withdraw from all courses; a person who has withdrawn from all study is a "dropout."

Endowed Chair or Professorship: A specially funded and named faculty position for a distinguished professor who is said to hold the "Chair."

Elective: Refers to a course that may be applied toward a degree but is not specifically required.

English as a Second Language (ESL): English language training for persons whose first language is not English.

Evening College (or Night School): A division of a college, designed largely for adults, to offer college studies on a part-time basis.

Extracurricular Activities: Activities that are a part of student life, but not part of regular classroom study, such as athletics, the drama club or the student newspaper.

Faculty: Teaching staff of a college or university. Normally used to refer to a person or people rather than an organizational unit within a university.

Fee: A payment charged for special services, such as late registration fee, graduation fee or application fee.

Fellowship: An award of money to a student, usually for graduate study; provides for tuition and living expenses for full-time study.

Final: Terminal examination in a course.

Financial Aid: Scholarships, loans, grants-in-aid and other financial assistance for students to meet educational costs.

Foreign Student Advisor: Chief liaison officer between the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), university, community and the U.S. government for foreign students; also counselor to foreign students with respect to personal and academic problems. Also called an International Student Advisor.

Fraternity: See Greek Organization.

Freshman: A first-year student at a high school, college or university.

Full-time Student: A student who is carrying a normal load of courses. Undergraduate students must take at least 12 credit hours per term and graduate students nine credit hours at most colleges and universities to be considered full-time.

General Education: Courses covering broad areas of the liberal arts.

Grade: The evaluation of a student's academic work.

Grading "On the Curve": A grading system under which students are measured relative to one another's performance rather than by absolute standards.

Grading System: Schools, colleges and universities in the United States commonly use letter grades to indicate the quality of a student's academic performance: A (excellent), B (good), C (average), D (below average) and F (failing). See the Assessment Section of this publication for further explanation.

G.P.A. (Grade Point Average): A system used by many colleges for evaluating the overall scholastic performance of students. It is found by first determining the number of grade points a student has earned in each course completed and then by dividing the sum of all grade points by the total number of course points or hours carried. See the Assessment Section of this publication for further explanation.

Graduate: Description of a post-undergraduate program leading to a master's or doctoral degree; also describes a student in such a program ("graduate student") as well as a person who has satisfactorily completed any educational program ("graduate").

Graduate Student: A student in a graduate program.

Graduate Program: A post-undergraduate program leading to a master's or doctoral degree.

Greek Organization: Also, **Greek Life**. A social organization of men (**fraternity**) or women (**sorority**) who often live together in large house on or near the campus. Though they are not affiliated with Greece, they are often called "Greeks" on campus due to their Greek-letter names, such as the Alpha Phi Alpha fraternity or the Delta Gamma sorority.

Honor Fraternity: Organization honoring students who have achieved distinction in academic areas or service.

Incomplete Grade: A grade given (usually "I") when there is a reasonable delay for the completion of work for a particular course. Another grade is recorded when the work is completed.

Independent Study: A method of receiving credit for study or research independent of any specific course. Such study is often part of an honors program in the student's major and is supervised by a specified professor to whom the student is accountable.

International Student Advisor: Same as Foreign Student Advisor.

Internship: Supervised practical training that a student or recent graduate may take, often for a summer, semester or year to gain experience. May or may not be paid or for university credit.

Junior: A third-year student at a high school, college, or university.

Junior College: A two-year institution of higher education offering liberal arts, sciences, technical, and vocational training; may be under either public or private control; awards an A.A. or A.S. degree after two years or a certificate after a shorter course of study.

Leave of Absence: Approved leave taken by a student in good standing who plans to continue his or her studies.

Lecture: A prepared talk about a specific topic.

Liberal Arts College: A college that emphasizes a program of liberal arts or general undergraduate studies.

Lower Division: The freshman and sophomore levels, the first and second years of an undergraduate program of study.

M.A./M.S.: Master of Arts/Master of Science degree, awarded upon completion of a one- to two-year program of graduate study.

Major Field of Study (Major): A student's primary field of study.

Make-Up Exam: A late examination for students who missed the test on the assigned date.

Matriculated: Accepted for study in a particular degree program by a college or university.

Mid-Term: Examination given in the middle of an academic term.

Minor Field of Study (Minor): A student's secondary field of study.

Multiple-Choice Exam: Examination in which questions are given followed by two or more answers from which the correct answer is selected.

Nonmatriculated: Refers to a student at a college or university who is not enrolled as a candidate for a degree; also called a Non-Degree or Special Student.

Open Admission: College or university admissions policy of admitting high school graduates and other adults generally without regard to conventional academic qualifications, such as high school subjects, grades and test scores. Virtually all applicants are accepted.

Open-Book Exam: Examination in which the student is permitted to use the textbook(s) during the test.

Oral Exam: Examination in which the professor asks the student questions that are answered by speaking rather than by writing.

Part-Time Student: A student who carries less than a full-time course load.

Pass-Fail Grading System: The practice at some colleges of rating students' quality of performance in their courses as either passing or failing instead of giving grades to indicate various levels of achievement.

Ph.D.: Doctor of Philosophy; highest academic degree in U.S. education; diploma states Doctor of Philosophy in (subject); generally research-oriented.

Point: Used interchangeably with Credit and Unit; also refers to the grading system (4 points=A, 3 points=B, 2 points=C, 1 point=D, 0 points=F).

Postdoctoral Fellow: A person recently awarded a Ph.D. appointment to assist the university in its research and teaching functions.

Preliminary Exam: A written or oral examination given to a Ph.D. candidate to determine readiness for the last stages of the doctoral program.

Prerequisite: Prior coursework required for admission to a class, e.g., introductory accounting coursework required for admission to an advanced accounting course.

President: Same as Chancellor.

Probation: Status resulting from unsatisfactory academic work; a warning that the student must improve academic performance or be dismissed after a specific period of time.

Proctor: A person who supervises examinations; also used as a verb.

Professor: The title for all university faculty members, who are ranked as assistant, associate or (full) professors.

Professor Emeritus: An academic title generally awarded to retired faculty.

Professional School: Institutions that specialize in the study of business, medicine, dentistry, law, engineering, music, art or theology; offer two to seven years of training; may be independent or part of university.

Provost: The chief academic officer of the university, who supervises academic policies and budgets.

Qualifying Examination: An examination that tests students' qualifications for doctoral work.

Quarter: Usually 12 weeks of classes, including the final examination period; the summer quarter is sometimes subdivided into shorter periods of study.

Quiz: A short test that may or may not be announced ahead of time (called "Pop Quiz" if the short test is unannounced).

Reading List: A list of books and articles prepared by each professor for a specific course. Required and suggested texts are usually indicated as such. This list is designed to give the student an overview of the particular course.

Reference Room: Room in the library with reference books, such as dictionaries and encyclopedias.

Register: Same as Catalogue.

Registrar: Official recorder of students' academic information, such as courses taken and grades received.

Registration: Procedure of officially enrolling in classes at the beginning of each term.

Remedial Course: A noncredit course to help students with weak backgrounds in particular areas prepare themselves for credit courses in those areas.

Required Course: A subject that is chosen for students and that students must complete with a passing grade in order to obtain a degree.

Research Assistant (R.A.): Usually an advanced graduate student who assists a professor on a research project. R.A.s may receive payment for their services in addition to a waiver of tuition charges.

Research Paper: A written report that includes research findings and the development of the student's ideas.

Reserve: When a book is "on reserve," it means that the book cannot be removed from the library. This is done when the library has a limited number of copies of a book that is required reading for a particular course.

Residence Hall: Same as Dormitory.

Sabbatical: A leave of absence granted to a faculty member, usually at the end of six years of teaching at one university.

Scholarship: Any grant, fellowship or remission of tuition and fees to a student that enables a student to further their education.

Section: One time period of a course that is offered at several times in the same term.

Semester: 15 to 18 weeks of classes, including the final examination period; a typical semester calendar includes two semesters (September-December and January–May) and a summer session (June–August).

Seminar: A course of study in which the class meets and decides what and how they would like to pursue their study; the class decides who will do what research; ideas and research are presented by the class members, and the professor serves as a moderator.

Senior: A fourth-year student at a high school, college or university.

Skip Class: Same as Cut Class.

Sophomore: A second-year student at a high school, college or university.

Sorority: See Greek Organization.

Special Student: Same as nonmatriculated student.

Stipend: The amount of money given per year to a student or scholar as a scholarship or fellowship.

Student Union: A building on campus used for social and recreational activities.

Summer School: Formal, but reduced, course offerings during the long academic vacation.

Syllabus: An outline of topics to be covered in an academic course.

Take-Home Exam: Examination that may be written at home.

Teaching Assistant (T.A.): Usually an advanced graduate student who assists a professor teaching large undergraduate classes. T.A.s may receive payment for their services in addition to a waiver of tuition charges.

Technical Institute: Institution offering terminal training in applied sciences and technical subjects of two to three years' duration (no further degree training).

Tenure: The status of a permanent member of the faculty, awarded on the basis of scholarship, teaching or service.

Term: A general word for a division of the academic year; may be a Semester, Quarter or Trimester.

Term Paper: A formal paper required as a part of coursework and often (at graduate level) the major determinant of the student's grade.

Textbook: A book containing a general or specific presentation of the principles of a subject.

Theme: A brief composition or essay on a particular topic.

Thesis: A formal paper presenting the results of study and research that is submitted to fulfill requirements for an advanced degree; usually refers to as the master's thesis.

Transcript: Official copy of a student's academic record at a particular academic institution, including dates attended, courses taken, grades, grade point average, degree(s) earned and academic honors.

Transfer: To withdraw from one institution or program and enroll in another. Often times some credit for courses taken at one institution can be transferred to another institution.

Trimester: Usually 15 weeks, including the final examination period; there are three trimesters (September–September) per calendar year, with students generally attending class during two of the three.

Tuition: The fee paid by students for their instruction.

Undergraduate: Description of a college or university program leading to a bachelor's degree; also a student in the first four years of college or university study.

Unit: Used interchangeably with Credit.

University: An institution composed of colleges or schools of liberal arts, sciences, and technology as well as professional and graduate schools; offers bachelor's degree programs and technical and professional graduate training.

Upper Division: The junior and senior levels—or the third, fourth, and fifth years—of an undergraduate program of studies.

Withdrawal: Release of a student from enrollment—either from a particular course or from the university in general—without the intention to return.

Work Study: A need-based federal financial aid program whereby students are employed—usually on campus—and the U.S. g`overnment subsidizes the pay given.

Source. This glossary has been reprinted and adapted, with permission, from *Pre-departure Orientation Handbook;* Japan-United States Educational Commission, 1983.

ADMINISTRATION AND FUNDING OF THE FULBRIGHT SCHOLAR PROGRAM

The flagship international educational exchange program sponsored by the U.S. Government, widely known as the Fulbright Program, is designed to increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries. With this goal as a starting point, the Fulbright Program has provided more than 250,000 participants—chosen for their leadership potential—with the opportunity to observe each others' political, economic and cultural institutions, exchange ideas and embark on joint ventures of importance to the general welfare of the world's inhabitants.

The Fulbright Program was established in 1946 under legislation introduced by former Senator J. William Fulbright of Arkansas. The Fulbright Program is administered by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the United States Department of State.

Since the establishment of the Program, 43,000 Fulbright Visiting Scholars have conducted research or taught in U.S. universities, and more than 41,000 Fulbright U.S. Scholars have engaged in similar activities abroad. The Fulbright Program awards approximately 800 grants to both U.S. Scholars and Visiting Scholars each year. Currently, the Program operates in 140 countries worldwide.

The primary source of funding for the Fulbright Program is an annual appropriation made by the United States Congress to the Department of State. Participating governments and host institutions in foreign countries and in the United States also contribute financially through cost-sharing and indirect support, such as salary supplements, tuition waivers and university housing. The Congressional appropriation for the Fulbright Program in fiscal year 2002 was $119 million. Foreign governments, through their binational commissions or foundations, contributed an additional $28 million directly to the Fulbright Program.

The J. William Fulbright Foreign Scholarship Board (FSB), composed of 12 educational and public leaders appointed by the President of the United States, formulates policy for the administration of the program, establishes criteria for the selection of candidates and approves candidates nominated for awards.

The United States Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs develops policies to assure fulfillment of the purposes of the Program and administers it with the assistance of binational education commissions and foundations in some 51 countries that have executive agreements with the United States for continuing exchange programs, United States Embassies in 89 other countries and a number of cooperating agencies in the United States.

Binational commissions and foundations draw up the annual program plan for exchanges, in consultation with participating universities and organizations in the host country. They also screen, interview and recommend to the FSB qualified candidates for student and faculty grants under their exchange programs. In a country without a commission or foundation, the Public Affairs Section of the U.S. Embassy develops the program and supervises it locally.

The Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES) under a cooperative agreement with the Department of State, administers the Fulbright Scholar Program for faculty and professionals. CIES is a division of the Institute of International Education (IIE) and has close working relationships with the major disciplinary bodies in the humanities, social sciences and natural sciences. During the terms of their grants in the United States, Fulbright lecturers and researchers are assisted by CIES.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE PUBLICATION
Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs
Released August 2002

The Fulbright Program is sponsored by the
United States Department of State
Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs

Fulbright Scholar Program

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Washington, DC 20008-3009

A division of the Institute of International Education

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